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ABSTRACT

This guide is part of the Project BORN FREE training series for teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents, designed to increase their awareness of adult career development. The materials contain a set of independent learning strategies which combine to provide an intervention model for use at the postsecondary level. Facilitation instructions, the group process, and evaluation methods are detailed. The 10 chapters define objectives and methods for facilitating career development, and outline a curriculum. Several uses for the training packets are suggested, including inservice training, staff development, and classroom presentations. A sample workshop and course designs are presented as well as a summary of the literature review. (Author/KMF)

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PROJECT BORN FREE
TRAINING PACKET TO REDUCE SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT
POSTSECONDARY HIGHER EDUCATION LEVEL

by

L. Sunny Hansen, Gerri Perreault, Barbara Lofgren,
Charlene V. Follett, Mary Ann Watt and Anne Boe

With Contributions from
Field-Site Staff

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Women's Educational Equity Act Program
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education
Patricia Roberts Harris, Secretary

Code System

P/E = Parent/Educator Appropriateness

P = especially effective with parent groups
E = especially effective with educators
P-E = equally effective with either group

TL = Level of Group Trust Required

TL-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low trust level
TL-M = group needs to have a medium trust level
TL-H = group needs to have a high trust level

CD = Level of Awareness of Career Development Concepts and Issues

CD-L = strategy can be used with a group with a low level of awareness of career development concepts and issues
CD-M = group needs a medium level of career development awareness
CD-H = group needs a high level of career development awareness

SR = Level of Awareness of Sex-Role Issues

SR-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-M = group needs a medium level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-H = group needs a high level of awareness of sex-role issues

Learning Strategy Terms

Roman numerals = goals
Capital letters = objectives
Arabic numerals = learning strategies

For their special contributions to the original materials and learning strategies in the Postsecondary/Higher Education Training Packet, we wish to acknowledge the following postsecondary/higher education field-site staff:

Corrine Geiger, Pat Loving:
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PREFACE

A federally funded two-year project to reduce sex-role stereotyping in career options at all educational levels, BORN FREE represents the work, involvement, and commitment of an unbelievable number of people. It has been a shared effort of about 100 dedicated university and field-site staff members working part time in their own institutions. First-year focus was primarily on materials development, with the second year devoted to completing field-testing and revising the materials, with each of 14 BORN FREE teams carrying out an implementation plan in their own institution in Minnesota.

Three training packets and nine color videotapes have been developed over the past two years to increase the awareness of teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents of the ways in which they consciously and unconsciously inhibit or facilitate career options for children, youth, and adults. These print and videotape materials are intended to be used in in-service workshops and staff development programs at elementary, secondary, and postsecondary/higher education levels. Combined with a number of content and process reports, they represent an attempt to provide a set of multimedia materials based on a theoretical framework of career development, sex-role socialization, collaborative consultation, and change process. They also reflect a field-test design in which the materials were tried out in participating schools and colleges and subsequently revised based on the feedback received. Many of these materials have been a part of the implementation plans of the schools and colleges involved. These are K-12 School Districts of White Bear Lake, Hopkins, and St. Paul; 916 Vocational-Technical Institute and Lakewood Community College in White Bear Lake; Normandale Community College in Bloomington; Augsburg College in Minneapolis; and the College of Liberal Arts Career Planning Office of the University of Minnesota. The project is housed in the Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology Program of the College of Education, University of Minnesota.

The three training packets have gone through considerable development. First, objectives related to the career development conceptual framework were identified, with teams creating learning activities linked to them. These strategies were first field-tested in the BORN FREE 1977 Summer Institute, followed by extensive field-testing and revision the second year. They were further field-tested at the 1978 BORN FREE National Institute. Attempts have been made to integrate the various parts of the project into these packets--the career development framework, the sex-role socialization literature review, the nine videotapes, and the change process evaluation model.

This packet is intended to be used primarily with educators and parents at the postsecondary/higher education level, but ideas can be adapted for use at other levels. Because staff members have shared their ideas freely with each other, some activities appear in more than one packet (especially the material on change process). Many of the activities in this module were created by our BORN FREE staff, with modifications made following field-test evaluation. Some have been adapted from other sources, and where this has occurred, credit is given. In a few instances, the original source was unknown and could not be traced.

Besides the print materials which have been field-tested in workshops in various educational institutions, a set of nine color video cassettes also has been developed. These are based on developmental themes drawn both from the literature review completed for the project and from the clinical observations of field-site teams in their own institutions. Because the technical production on these cassettes was not completed in time for our field test, extensive evaluation data are available only on Videotape No. 1, "BORN FREE: A World of Options." Learning strategies based on the tapes have been incorporated into each packet. A Video Viewers' Guide for leaders also accompanies each tape.

These training packets are intended to stand alone but assume some knowledge of counseling, career development, sex-role socialization, and change process on the part of workshop leaders. It is expected that the materials will be most effective if used by leaders who themselves have completed some BORN FREE training. In addition, it is important that users have as part of their resources the related BORN FREE training materials. Besides the nine videotapes and viewers' guides, these include the Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping for the particular educational level (elementary, secondary, postsecondary/higher education); the evaluation reports on the BORN FREE Summer Institutes (state--Keierleber, 1977, and national--Penn, 1978); and the change process reports, Evaluation of Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions (Keierleber and Hansen, 1978) and Case Summaries of the Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions (Keierleber, 1978). In fact, materials from these sources have been integrated into the training packets and are essential to utilizing some of the learning strategies. A complete list of these materials is printed at the end of this packet.

It would be impossible to acknowledge by name all who have made contributions to a project as huge in scope as Project BORN FREE. Thanks must be expressed, however, to the 100 university and field staff (their names are on page ii and the inside back cover) who went far beyond the time allocated and literally engaged in a "labor of love" to bring the materials to completion; to the 14 institutions (also named on the back cover) and their administrators and faculty without whose cooperation this effort would not be possible; to the more than 150 individuals--teachers, professors, students, counselors, parents, administrators, others--who consented to share themselves and their ideas as part of the videotapes; and to the project assistants, administrative assistants, level coordinators, and others whose leadership has been so vital to this collaborative effort.

There are a few who deserve special mention. Much credit must be given to Gerri Perreault, who as administrative assistant and module coordinator created the "Fact Pack" and assisted in bringing all the packets to completion. Barbara Lofgren, as project assistant and consultant to five institutions during the second year, contributed much to the implementation plans and, as co-author of this packet, made major revisions. Appreciation is expressed to Charlene Follett, who in the first year spent many extra hours coordinating development of the literature review and higher education packet; to Dr. Paul Pedersen, who contributed ideas in the first few months of the project; and to Prof. Clarke Chambers, who continued his long commitment to sex equality as a member of the CLA team. Appreciation is also expressed to Dolores Dege, who as general project assistant in the second year assisted on video scripts, coordinated the Video Viewers' Guides, and assisted in revision of the introductory material of the training packets. University staff contributed to the writing of the strategies for the videotapes. For their special contributions of learning strategies, recognition is also due David Grout, Pat Olsson, Pat Loving, and Corrine Geiger. Administrators who have been especially helpful are Dr. Bernard Raphael, Marianne Sander, and Dr. Richard Sanders.

Besides those who actually have done the writing and other work on these packets, there are several individuals who have been working behind the scenes on other parts of the project or as support personnel. Not the least of these is Beverly Mills-Novoa, administrative assistant, who has carefully attended to communication, management, staff morale, report writing, public relations, and administrative planning in order to get the tasks done, and edited a high quality BORN FREE newsletter. Phyllis Kragseth, media specialist, has given much time, dedication, and talent to the monumental task of developing the nine videotapes over the two years and deserves special thanks. Dennis Keierleber proved to be an extremely competent process evaluator in the first year. He provided valuable raw and interpretive data on evaluation of the 1977 Summer Institute and the process of implementing educational change. Sue Warsett, product evaluator, was persistent and thorough in evaluating the learning strategies, tapes, and packets throughout the project. Fred Krusemark, who joined the staff the second year, provided valuable help on process evaluation in the field-sites, and created important evaluation instruments. Phillip Penn assisted on computer analysis and had major responsibility for the evaluation report of the 1978 National Institute. Shelly Heck proved to be a versatile script assistant, photographer, and production assistant on the videotapes, as well as an expert typist and organizer.

To help with the overload of work, we were fortunate to have the supplemental help of Project assistants Joan Duke, Hope Young, and Keven Murphy. We are grateful to senior secretary Linda Emery for her competent organization and management of budget and office. Special thanks are due secretaries Betty Jo Johnson, Terry Roiger, Cathy Dingley, Esther Wittenberg, and Jeanne Getty for their skillful typing of several drafts of this manuscript. Karen Nelson and Sue Johnson also assisted with administrative detail in the first year. Thanks are also due Jo Zimmar and Sue Bohnenstingel for facilitating completion of the many secretarial tasks. These credits would not be complete without acknowledging the fine cooperation and excellent service provided by Warren White and the University Central Duplicating staff, who came through on several tight deadlines.

Several people outside the University staff also made helpful contributions to BORN FREE. Gloria Kumagai and staff of the minority women's project, "Integrating Cultural Diversity into Non Sex-Biased Curriculum," of the St. Paul Schools provided suggestions for us to more adequately integrate racial, ethnic, and economic class concerns. Thanks are due the several reader-consultants who critiqued the training packet and offered constructive suggestions: Dr. Jan Birk, University of Maryland; Dr. Deena Allen, Vocational Education, University of Minnesota; and Dr. Gary McLean, Vocational Education, University of Minnesota. While appreciation is expressed to all who have contributed, the views herein are the responsibility of the authors.

We also wish to acknowledge Arnold Walker, Chuck Kundschier, Scott Constans, and the rest of the University Media Resources staff for technical production of the nine videotapes; Dr. Richard Davis and the Instructional Systems Resource Lab for technical assistance and support; Dr. Maynard Reynolds and Marilyn Gorlin of the University Psychoeducational Studies Department; the Higher Education Program and the Dean's Office, College of Education, which has provided space, facilities, and budgetary help; the Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology faculty and students for their kindness and support; and those many unnamed individuals who are committed to the goals of BORN FREE--to Build Options, Reassess Norms, and Free Roles through Educational Equity. Most of all, thanks is expressed to Dr. Joan Duval and the Women's Educational Equity Act Program (WEEAP) staff, who made this work possible. Carolyn Joyner, WEEAP's project monitor for BORN FREE, was especially attentive to our needs.

Many persons and institutions gave us permission to use their articles or other materials in this packet. To all of them we are most grateful, for we believe the reprints make the packets richer and more self-contained.

A final comment must be made about the people who have done so much to bring the BORN FREE training packets and videotapes to closure and to begin the process of reducing the barriers to career development in educational institutions. They have done a monumental job. Due to limits of budget, the field-site staff were released only three half days per month to help develop materials and implement BORN FREE in their institutions. In the first year the University staff consisted of 17 persons, most of whom were working quarter-time as Project assistants, the rest of the time as full-time graduate students. In the second year the staff was reduced to 12 persons, all but the secretary employed only half time. Again the staff consisted primarily of graduate students in Counseling Psychology, Higher Education, and Speech and Communications, who were concurrently taking preliminary exams, doing internships, writing theses and dissertations, and attending to the other parts of their lives. The task has not been easy. But it is a tribute to their competency, their good will, their persistence, and their dedication to the common cause of sex equity for all that they have accomplished so much in so short a time. To all of them, and especially to Beverly Mills-Novoa and Gerri Perreault for their loyalty, selflessness, and continuing support, I wish to express a very special thank you.

BORN FREE is more than a project; it is an ideal and a process and a goal to be achieved. Among those aspects of the project we hope would be imitated are the meaningful relationships we have established between the University staff and field-site staff in cooperating institutions, as well as the formal and informal networks of BORN FREE people created through the local workshops and the National Institute. Our formal efforts are only a beginning; those who use these materials and attempt to make changes in their attitudes and practices as educators or in their behavior as parents are the ones who will really determine whether boys and girls, women and men eventually will be able to choose more freely from an expanded range of career options as a result of Project BORN FREE.

October, 1978

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Appendix

A. BORN FREE Products and Publications

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I. WHAT IS PROJECT BORN FREE?

Project BORN FREE is a training and development program, funded under the Women's Educational Equity Act, U.S. Office of Education, designed to reduce stereotyping which limits career decisions for boys and girls, women and men. It is a multidimensional effort to intervene in educational institutions to help reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping and expand career options.

It is a concept based on the idea that both women and men face barriers in their career development because of stereotypic attitudes about sex roles.

It is a process of helping faculties in educational institutions engage in self-examination and identification of the best strategies to achieve BORN FREE goals.

Project BORN FREE represents the work and commitment of many people. Although housed at the University of Minnesota, it is truly a collaborative effort of nearly one hundred staff members, consisting of Project staff at the University (external consultants) and field-site staff (internal consultants) working in fourteen separate educational institutions from kindergarten through postsecondary/higher education (see inside back cover for names of participating individuals and institutions).

Through cooperative staff efforts, a set of materials has been developed for use in in-service workshops and in staff development programs at elementary, secondary, and postsecondary/higher education levels, and for adaptation to classroom use. By making teachers, professors, counselors, administrators, and parents more aware of the ways in which they consciously and unconsciously inhibit and/or facilitate career decisions of youth and adults, it is expected that educational systems will be more supportive of expanded options based on individual needs and talents.

The shortened title of the Project, BORN FREE, is an acronym which expresses exactly what the Project is about: to Build Options, Reassess Norms, and Free Roles through Educational Equity.

BORN FREE is unique in that it is built on both a content and a process theoretical framework. The materials are based on the Minnesota Career Development Curriculum (the CDC) which defines career as a continuous, lifelong, person-centered process of developmental experiences. The concept focuses on self-direction in educational/vocational/life-style options, and includes not only the work role, but the integration of work roles with other life roles. It assumes that individuals make decisions about work and family over the entire life span (Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens, and Antholz, 1975).

The materials are based, also, on a belief that educators and parents can engage in strategies and interventions which will help girls and boys, men and women have a wider variety of life career options. Two major models of change have contributed to this belief: The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (Havelock, 1973), and the Rand Corporation model for evaluating change process in federally funded innovative programs (Mann, 1976).

A hypothesis of career socialization is advanced which suggests that women and men are socialized to choose or to not choose certain educational, occupational, and life-style options; and that this subtle socialization process begins during the preschool years and continues into adulthood.

The University staff found ample support for this hypothesis through an extensive review of literature for three educational levels (see "Summary of Literature Review" section) and through "systems diagnoses" or analyses of each participating institution. Field-site staff at each building site provided additional evidence of the need for Project BORN FREE through clinical observations and needs assessments. Development teams sought to identify what seemed to be the most cogent evidence of results of career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions.

Results of the literature review and the institutional analyses became the data base for the development of training materials. Thus, the materials are based upon (1) a theoretical concept of career development, (2) a collaborative model of university-practitioner consultation, and (3) a change-process model of systems intervention.

The results of the three literature reviews are available from Project BORN FREE, along with the set of three training packets of learning strategies for intervention at elementary, secondary and postsecondary/higher education levels. A set of nine half-hour color videotapes and other related printed materials are also being disseminated (see "BORN FREE Products and Publications" section). The videotapes can be used in conjunction with the training packets to expand the audience's awareness of career inhibitors and facilitators through interviews with a wide variety of individuals, representing many different lifestyles and careers. Learning strategies using the videotapes have been included in the packets. The Video Viewers' Guides will aid workshop leaders in using the tapes and provide questions for discussion.

II. WHAT ARE THE TRAINING PACKETS?

Three packets are available for use in elementary, secondary, and postsecondary settings. Each packet is a set of independent learning strategies which combine to provide an intervention model appropriate for use with educators and parents at each level. The strategies may be used individually, or parts of the total packet may be used as the format for a workshop or an intervention process. Some strategies are included in more than one packet, because they are appropriate for more than one developmental level.

Each packet is structured by utilizing a set of general goals which were developed from the career development conceptual model, the review of literature, and the needs assessments for that developmental level. Subordinate to each goal are sets of objectives designed to implement different aspects of the goal and learning strategies to carry out the objectives. In certain instances, a strategy has gone through so many modifications over time that the original source is unknown.

Workshop leaders will select strategies appropriate to their audience and their workshop goals. For a two-hour workshop, strategies designed to increase awareness of limits on career choices would be appropriate. Longer workshops might attempt to change behaviors and attitudes and/or to create and implement change in the participants' home institutions. The strategies may be used individually or in combination, to fulfill whatever objectives are deemed essential for the particular target population. It is hoped that they will be used in one, two, or three-day workshops and/or in five to ten-week in-service courses, for college credit and for personal growth.

III. HOW DO THE PACKETS WORK?

Code System

Workshop audiences vary on many dimensions, and it is important to have a proper match between the target audience and the learning strategy. For that reason, we have rated the strategies along four important dimensions: (1) parent or educator appropriateness, (2) trust level, (3) career development awareness, and (4) sex-role awareness. Note: A code system notation is located in the upper left corner of each strategy. For your convenience, a summary of the code meanings also appears on the inside of the front cover.

P/E = Parent/Educator Appropriateness. These designations are based upon the field testing which indicated that some strategies are more effective with one group than the other and upon the judgment of the authors. The designations are only suggestions. Actual use with any group would be at the discretion of the leaders, based upon their analysis of the specific audience.

P = especially effective with parent groups
E = especially effective with educators
P-E = equally effective with either group

TL = Level of Group Trust Required. The learning strategies require varying levels of personal involvement and self-disclosure. The strategies range from those that can be used with a group that has a fairly low level of openness and trust to those strategies which expect the group to have a high degree of group trust, openness, and willingness to share.

TL-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low trust level
TL-M = group needs to have a medium trust level
TL-H = group needs to have a high trust level

CD = Level of Awareness of Career Development Concepts and Issues. Many of the strategies can be used with people who have a limited background in career development. A basic awareness of the Career Development Curriculum (CDC) model is considered a prerequisite for all workshop leaders as background perspective. Creating awareness of ways in which career options are limited by sex-role socialization is the goal of the packets at every level. Increasing knowledge of ways to facilitate expanded career options is another goal. Audiences need to be aware that career development is a lifelong process instead of a one-time choice. Career options are influenced at every stage of a person's development, at home, in school, and at work.

Workshop leaders should make a special effort to be aware of restraints on career development due to race, economic class, age, and physical or mental disability. The authors have tried to integrate the concerns into the learning strategies but believe that workshop leaders might need to be reminded to be aware of the conditions and experiences of people different from themselves. Workshop leaders should also be aware that a person's particular family history may make her/him less willing to talk about his/her own career development and career history.

CD-L = strategy can be used with a group with a low level of awareness of career development concepts and issues
CD-M = group needs a medium level of career development awareness
CD-H = group needs a high level of career development awareness

SR = Level of Awareness of Sex-Role Issues. People vary widely in their perceptions of and attitudes toward sex bias in our culture. What one person perceives as sex-role bias may be defined differently by another, and what may be very controversial to one group may be quite basic to another. Although the strategies have been rated on low, medium, and high awareness levels, it is important that the leaders be sensitive to the needs of each particular group. If a group has a particularly low level of awareness and trust, even the strategies designated as "low threat" may be very risky to that group. In general, most of the materials and the general approach of BORN FREE are considered to be low key and moderate in their approach to sex-role issues. Groups highly sophisticated in sex-role issues might find the packets at a level below their awareness.

SR-L = strategy can be used with a group that has a low level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-M = group needs a medium level of awareness of sex-role issues
SR-H = group needs a high level of awareness of sex-role issues

Learning Strategy Terms

The packets use a code to explain the terms used in each learning strategy. Roman numerals indicate the goals, capital letters indicate the objectives, and Arabic numerals indicate the learning strategies, in an ordinal fashion. Therefore, VI.B.3. means the sixth goal, the second objective under that goal, and the third strategy which can be used to achieve that objective. This code is further explained below.

Goal. In general, a goal means the end purpose or the achievement toward which the effort is directed. The term is used extensively throughout the packets to designate the broad significant outcomes expected from the strategies. Each goal may have several objectives.

Objective. The specific outcomes or overt changes that are expected to result from participation in the learning activities are called the objectives. They tell explicitly what the learners will be doing when they display their learned skills, concepts, habits, and attitudes. An objective may be included under more than one goal.

Learning Strategy. This term is used to refer to the entire individual unit of learning which consists of the goal, the objective, and the specific activity designed to achieve the goal and objective. It also refers to the set of procedures within each particular learning strategy.

Time Required. The minimum amount of time needed for completion of the specific strategy is given. Time requirements vary between individual strategies and according to the specific application. If used as a complete package, each packet would require at least sixty hours of completion.

Resource Needed. This section lists materials the workshop leaders will use to implement the learning strategies. Handouts to be used by all participants in the strategy are reprinted for duplicaton and use by workshop leaders. Attached articles are included for the workshop leaders' background information and sometimes for the participants' use. Other background references helpful to the workshop leaders are cited.

Outcome Criteria. These offer potential standards by which workshop leaders can evaluate whether the learning strategies' objectives have been met. Many workshop leaders have found it effective to require journal writing by participants when a sequence of strategies is used. When a strategy's outcome criterion mentions "reflecting in journals," it is referring to that sort of journal writing in an ongoing workshop.

IV. WHO CAN USE THE BORN FREE MATERIALS? SOME CRITICAL ASSUMPTIONS

In developing these training materials, staff made some critical assumptions about their use. The first assumption is that BORN FREE workshop leaders will use their knowledge about their target populations and choose strategies accordingly (see "How Do the Packets Work" and "Intended Audience" sections).

The second assumption is that workshop teams will consist of both a male and a female leader (see "Workshop Leaders" section).

The third assumption is that workshop leaders will have communication skills, counseling skills, and group process skills which will enable them to facilitate harmonious interaction within their workshop groups (see "Group Process" section).

The fourth assumption is that workshop leaders will have some knowledge of change process, i.e., how to bring about change in systems, how to integrate planned change into the content area of career development and sex-role stereotyping, and how to deal with resistance in groups and in systems (see "Change Process" section).

The fifth assumption, which is reflected in the designated outcome criteria for the learning strategies contained in this BORN FREE training packet, is that leaders will need to evaluate their use of these materials (see "Measuring Results" section).

These assumptions are critical to achieving success with BORN FREE materials. Though it is not expected that one workshop leader will have all the requisite skills and experience, it is expected that workshops will be planned as team efforts, and that appropriate leaders will be selected so their strengths and weaknesses balance each other.

The Intended Audience

It is intended that these learning packets be used primarily with parents, counselors, instructors, and administrators, in educational settings. The materials can be used in training sessions or workshops with a wide range of settings and populations. Some suggested educational uses are: college faculty; departmental office staffs; student activity advisers; residence hall counselors; academic advisers; college counselors and student personnel workers; school resource and guidance staffs (e.g., counselors, SLBP teachers, nurses, and speech therapists); subject departments within schools and within school districts; parent workshops sponsored by PTA or at school-sponsored parent nights; administrator workshops; and school board workshops.

Although the learning packets were not developed with students as a target population, some of the learning strategies may be adapted for use in the classroom. The strategies in the elementary and secondary education packets can be modified to use with students. In addition, both packets contain lists of practical resources in which student-oriented activities may be found. The materials in the postsecondary/higher education packet can be used with students at that level with little modification.

The packets are intended to raise personal awareness and to provide intervention strategies at three broad educational levels. It is important, also, to consider the unique characteristics of each target population and to select strategies most appropriate for the particular group. A brief discussion of considerations for some specific educational groups follows:

Teachers. Learning activities emphasizing curriculum, analysis of texts and materials, influence of books and media, career development concepts and methods, and personal awareness (for both students and adults) might be used. Teachers often are especially interested in practical "how-to" materials which they can adapt for use in their classrooms.

Counselors. Learning strategies which emphasize effect, self-concept, personal awareness (for both students and adults), change process, guidance materials, and career development concepts, programs, and methods would be appropriate. Counselors need to be encouraged to provide leadership in the creation and implementation of comprehensive career development education programs. Counselors especially need to be exposed to materials which might help them become aware of their own sex biases in career counseling. They need assistance in identifying sex bias in guidance materials (tests, inventories, student records, career guidance resources, guidance kits, films, tapes, etc.).

Administrators. Learning strategies which stress individual career development, staff development, career development concepts and programs, the legal implications of sex discrimination and bias, cognitive information, documentation of the need for attention to career options and sex-roles, program development, educational and occupational opportunity, the change process, and ways of dealing with staff resistance might be used.

Professors. Professors may need to be convinced that there is a problem and that they consciously and unconsciously limit career options of students in higher education settings. Because college and university faculty tend to value cognitive and intellectual pursuits, presentation of the evidence on sex-role stereotyping and career decision making of college students may be the most effective strategy to use. The findings of Project BORN FREE's postsecondary/higher education literature review provide convincing data on direct and subtle discrimination in college settings and the need for change. The best evidence available, supported by theory and research, should be presented to higher education faculty members. They may also respond to selected videotapes.

Parents. With parents, learning strategies could be used that stress personal awareness, past socialization to choose or not choose certain career options, and ways in which parents and other family members facilitate or inhibit career development of their children. The most relevant strategies would be those that help parents examine their own behaviors and attitudes in childrearing practices, including family rules regarding watching television and using other media. Differences in attitudes and expectations which result from membership in minority cultures should be considered and discussed. The consequences of the acknowledged developmental stereotyping on children's opportunities and on their ultimate choices need to be stressed and documented. Parents need to become aware of the conscious and unconscious messages they give their children about what they can or cannot do. They need some examples of attitudes and behaviors which expand rather than limit career options. They also need to learn effective ways to have an impact on their children's educational institutions.

The materials may seem to be more oriented to educators than to parents. However, most of the activities are adaptable for adults in general and for a variety of parent groups. The workshop leaders can assess the awareness level of the parents in the group and choose appropriate strategies.

The Extended Audience

The BORN FREE training materials could be adapted for many other uses, in addition to educational purposes. Community agencies, mental health centers, state department personnel, community education programs, business and/or industrial personnel education and training programs, and career planning programs could adapt the BORN FREE materials for their use.

The BORN FREE staff concentrated their efforts on sex-role stereotyping but tried to include, where possible, references to other kinds of stereotyping that limit career decisions. Race, age, physical or mental handicap, marital status, socioeconomic class, and affectional/sexual preference are some of the stereotypes sometimes used to limit career options. It is intended that the materials can be adapted to combat these and other stereotypes which limit choices for men and women, girls and boys.

V. WORKSHOP LEADERS

During the development of the BORN FREE materials, and later during the field-testing, leadership teams composed of a man and a woman were found to be the most effective. This model reinforces the idea that the Project is concerned about career options for both women and men. It gives the leadership team an opportunity to model some of the behaviors and attitudes they expect from workshop participants.

In addition to the favorable influence of having a male/female leadership team, there are other factors which affect the success of a workshop. Openness to any and all contributions from members of the group, and avoidance of the tendency to evaluate the contributions will increase disclosure and trust. Leaders should be aware of and in control of their own hidden biases and should avoid using "red flag" words that might trigger unwanted responses from the audience.

Anxiety about performance will limit the leadership resources. Confidence in BORN FREE materials and in the team's own leadership abilities will improve the workshop. More important than what is said is the interaction with the group. Guide--don't direct. Adjust--don't anticipate. Personalize--don't distance. React to the moment, instead of trying to fulfill a preconceived script, to increase flexibility and effectiveness.

VI. GROUP PROCESS

The following behaviors and skills are important ones for group facilitators to have. While this is not intended as an exhaustive list, it mentions a number of important group process issues which must be addressed in conjunction with the content issues stimulated by the strategies. Both process and content must be considered by the leaders throughout the workshop or presentation.

To enhance the desired interaction between group members during the strategy, the workshop leaders should:

1. Model direct communication
    - a. express selves clearly and concisely
    - b. listen attentively
    - c. attend nonverbally to group members (e.g., maintain eye contact)
    - d. give direct feedback
    - e. make "I" statements which reflect statement ownership
2. Facilitate interaction among group members
    - a. help maintain focus of the conversation by making appropriate interventions
    - b. clarify and summarize

    c. redirect comments to group members
    d. reinforce desired behaviors

3. Attend to different levels of group process

    a. overall group-level issues (entire group)
    b. interpersonal issues (two or more persons)
    c. individual issues (one person)
        - observe and interpret
        - clarify goals

Because of the personal nature of some of the BORN FREE material, some thought as to the most relaxing method of presentation will help to promote discussion. A "small-group" atmosphere is possible, even with large numbers of people, if the participants are encouraged to discuss issues in groups of six to ten. The arrangement of chairs in circular, rather than straight rows, plus an invitation to move closer to the front of the room rather than sit scattered about a large space, will facilitate interaction.

Familiarity with the techniques used in the strategies is essential for effective presentation. Some of the most commonly used techniques are described here:

Small-Group Discussion

Breaking a group of participants into small groups of five to eight persons to discuss the topic will enable all members to actively participate in the dialog. When a topic is stressful, small-group discussion will enhance disclosure from members who might not talk in the large-group atmosphere. Depending upon the purpose of the group and the skills of its members, the leaders may assign discussion leaders to each small group, ask each group to choose a facilitator from within the small group, or leave the group unstructured.

Reporting

When discussion groups meet to process the activity or to devise lists of experiences or information, it is helpful to have one person act as "scribe" to record all the information produced in the group, and to report back to the large group a synthesis of the small-group information. After reporting, the scribe may wish to ask for additions or revisions to the report from other small-group members.

Fishbowl

This involves having two to eight members of a larger group work together to model an activity or to work through an issue. The small group sits together in the center of the room, and members of the larger group sit around them on all sides, observing the interaction. After a predetermined amount of time has passed, the activity is discontinued, and the large group discusses what they observed happening in the interaction. The process can be repeated until all participants have been in the center.

Role Playing

Sometimes the most effective way to predict what will happen in a situation is to actually pretend it is happening, acting it out as though it were the actual event. In a role-play situation, members of the group take the parts of the people involved in the expected interaction, and the rest of the group becomes the audience, watching the role play and critiquing the action afterward. Doing the role play will increase understanding of new skills, give practice in interpersonal interaction, and reduce apprehension about the actual event.

When using a role-play situation in the workshop, the team leaders should:

1. Set the scene properly, with adequate description of the situation.
2. Be sure each role player understands the role he/she is to play.
3. Be sure that the players know that there is a time limit and that the scene will be cut off even though it might not be completed.

The object is to learn skills, rather than to settle issues. The scene should run long enough to supply data for discussion but not long enough to run to its logical conclusion.

Members of the group can be working on a real issue or on a hypothetical one. They may take roles that they will actually have in some future interaction or they may take imaginary roles in an imaginary interaction that will help teach a desired skill. The dialog will be impromptu, although it may at times seem very real.

When the scene is ended, let the role players be the first to react to their experience. Then, ask the entire audience to describe what they saw happening, how it might have been different, and how they felt about it.

Brainstorming

This is a technique that is used to bring out new ideas from a group. It merely means that the members of a group randomly suggest ideas, and one member acts as scribe, writing the ideas down as they are suggested. The ground rules are that anything that is said is written down, no matter how crazy or unworkable it might be, and no criticism of ideas is allowed.

As the ideas are verbalized, they may not be challenged or restricted. They will be built upon, as other members of the group pick up the ideas they hear and think of things to say that relate to what has been said before.

It is important that the members of the group realize that they are not to criticize what is being suggested. The purpose is creativity of thought, and after the group has run out of ideas, or after a predetermined time has elapsed, the group can cull the ideas for the best ones. During the brainstorming session, no rejection of ideas is allowed.

In conducting a brainstorming session, the team leaders should:

1. Be sure the group understands the topic they are to brainstorm.
2. Be sure someone is planning to write things down.
3. Be sure the members understand that there will be no criticism of ideas. If anyone starts a debate during the session, cut it off.
4. Encourage the free flow of divergent ideas.
5. Keep the group on topic, and end it at the appropriate time.

Summarizing

When the group reaches a pivot point in the experience, such as a new activity within a strategy, completion of a strategy, or a coffee or lunch break, it is important to recap what has happened. This summary by the workshop leaders serves to refresh the memory of the members, to structure the learning process, to point out subtle meanings, and to tie the whole process to the goals of the individual learning strategies and/or of the workshop. The summary is a short but effective technique for enhancing understanding and maintaining group process.

Journal Writing

This refers to the assignment of journal writing to participants in ongoing workshops. Self-awareness is engendered by having the participants write what they have perceived happening to themselves and to others during an activity, and how they felt about it. In the learning strategies, journal writing is sometimes indicated under "Outcome Criteria" by the incomplete sentence, "I learned that...."

VII. CHANGE PROCESS

An integral part of BORN FREE is emphasis on process as well as content. Part of the training packet focuses on bringing about change in educational institutions. The goal of the materials is to help make the leaders and the participants effective change agents, in order to reduce sex-role stereotyping in their institutions.

Those trying to effect change need to be able to analyze their own institutions if they are to change them. Critical factors in this analysis are their own roles within the system, the communication patterns which exist, administrative support, the formal and informal power structure, the support groups, level of commitment, the decision-making style, and the climate for change in the area of career-related sex-role stereotyping. They also need to be able to anticipate resistance and the forms it will take, and learn strategies for dealing with resistance.

Change agents will need to combine change process skills with content skills, using counseling, consultation, and communication skills to build good relationships with those who are willing to work for change. The need to provide reinforcement and rewards is great. One of the basic questions in Project BORN FREE is how to bring about enduring change in educational institutions.

People have varying attitudes toward change and the need for it. There is a tendency to preserve the status quo. One of the motivations for change in attitudes toward career options and sex roles is the personal growth that can be experienced by participants. Most people accept the basic goal of education in our society--to promote the maximum development of each individual. While legal mandates such as Title IX give strength to such arguments, many individuals prefer the human development approach of BORN FREE as a basis for attitude and behavior change.

Guidelines for Systems Change

Useful references for those who wish to know more about change process include Havelock's The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (1973), Blocher's "A Systematic Eclectic Approach to Consultation" (1975), and Dworkin and Walz's "An Evaluation Model for Guidance" (1971). The chart on pages 13-14 ("Guidelines for Systems Change in Career Development Programs") presents three ways of looking at change process in career development programs.

Dealing with Resistance

As workshop leaders attempt to use these module activities, a major variable to consider is the receptivity of the target population. Sex-role stereotyping is a threatening topic to many people because of either negative past experiences or lack of exposure to the issues involved. If the target population consists of voluntary and open participants, minimal difficulty can be expected. However, if participation is involuntary and the participants lack openness to the ideas presented, a large amount of resistance may need to be dealt with. Sometimes a choice of words or language can increase or decrease the amount of resistance. BORN FREE has deliberately tried to avoid inflammatory or "red flag" language. While some individuals unfortunately react negatively to labels of affirmative action, Title IX, or sexism, the human development emphasis of BORN FREE may be more palatable. In general, phrases such as "expanding career options" are more positive than "eliminating sex bias." Terms such as "sex-fair teaching" and "sex fair counseling" or "promoting sex equality" may be less emotion-laden than "reducing sexism." Stressing the sex-role stereotyping of both women and men also affirms the human development emphasis of Project BORN FREE.

Resistance can take many forms in a group. For example, a few participants may attempt to sabotage the leaders' efforts by making irrelevant or disparaging comments about the exercises or about other participants. Even a few such people may cause the atmosphere of an entire session to be filled with negativism. A vocal few can create a tone which influences the rest in a negative way. Resistance of this type may be expected in many of the situations in which these activities are used and will vary according to differences in socioeconomic class, minority membership, and other such factors

(continued on page 15)

GUIDELINES FOR SYSTEMS CHANGE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

1. Systems Guidelines[1]

Build a relationship with the system (internal or external consultant); analyze your position in the system.

Diagnose the system: Preassessment (needs or cause of problem; why system needs changing).

Provide a strategy (potential solution to meet need). Have a specific plan.

Analyze resources: existing and needed human and nonhuman resources (financial, physical, other).

Implement the strategy.

Assess the effectiveness of the strategy. How do you account for the change? How do you document the change?

2. Content Evaluation (Task)[2]

Analyze the population: What is target population? For whom is program intended (counselors, parents, teachers)? What are their needs?

Analyze the setting: In what kind of setting or environment is the program to operate?

Analyze the community: What are the relevant needs and characteristics of the larger community in which the setting is located (parent values, business-industry opportunities, etc.)? Other agencies involved?

Analyze the objectives: What are the objectives of your intervention or program, stated specifically and behaviorally?

Identify the methods: What methods, media and materials will you use for developing and implementing your program?

3. Change Process Strategies (Maintenance)[3]

Be open, competent, responsible and available.

Build a support group of people who:
- are trusted, open, competent;
- have some power or status with the systems;
- are risk takers or innovators; and
- communicate well with others.

Choose a strategy for change which is reasonable, feasible (not too big or a change too fast).

Choose an innovation that will not be too threatening to too many.

Anticipate resistance and the forms it will take (apathy, hostility).

Choose a strategy that has a good chance of succeeding--success breeds success.

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1. Adapted from R.G. Havelock, The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1973).

2. Adapted from Ed Dworkin and Garry Walz, "An Evaluation Model for Guidance," in D. Cook (ed.), Guidance for Education in Revolution (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971).

3. Adapted from Alan Anderson, "Rules for an Internal Consultant," College of Education, University of Minnesota (mimeo, undated).

continued -- GUIDELINES FOR SYSTEMS CHANGE IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

1. Systems Guidelines	2. Content Evaluation (Task)	3. Change Process Strategies (Maintenance)
Provide for feedback into decision making, improvement, and redesign of plan for innovation.	Analyze the outcome: To what extent has each objective been achieved (process)?	Build a communication system in a variety of ways--person-to-person, coffee chats, feedback mechanisms.
Provide for dissemination of results.	To what extent have your overall performance objectives been achieved (product)?	Seek both internal and external support (administrators, parents, students, faculty council) and obtain public commitment.
		Have alternative or back-up strategies and be prepared to negotiate.
		Provide incentives and rewards for participation.
		Constantly evaluate the process.

which affect the basic belief structure of the target population. The importance of effective group process skills becomes apparent in these highly sensitive situations.

In most cases, a group that is resistant to positive participation can be transformed so that the experience can be beneficial and growth-producing to all involved persons. In dealing with resistance in groups, the leaders can:

1. Try to reflect the resistant members' views and comments. That is, try to summarize and clarify the feelings of the resistant members involved in an active way. Through use of this technique, the resistant members will be more open because they know they have been heard. The trust level of the group may rise so you can effectively deal with the divergent points of view. Reflection will insure that all positions of the resistance are clarified so you won't be victimized by the presence of "hidden agendas." This is consistent with BORN FREE goals to help individuals respect and understand diverse positions and points of view.
2. Facilitate the expression of responses by all group members to the resistance encountered. Accompanying resistance within a group are usually some forms of interpersonal and intellectual hostility. These conflicts should be clarified and resolved to achieve the critical openness necessary for successful learning experiences in the group.
3. Have participants present alternative procedures and opinions about how to deal with the resistance issue. By getting the input of members (especially resistant ones) within a reasonable framework, their personal "investment" in the group experience will increase the possibility of a positive group outcome.
4. Use the resistant views to the advantage of all participants by structuring the conflict as a learning experience. It is possible that participants may learn and grow the most where conflict and opposition are present. In many cases, the resistance encountered in any workshop setting will be similar to the kind present elsewhere. Utilizing the conflict as a facilitative event for change agents can be especially valuable.

While resistance can be expected in some training situations, it should not be allowed to ruin the activity. In the institution itself, as in the training setting, there may be forces at work which impede progress in achieving BORN FREE goals. Among the forms of resistance pointed out by Watson many years ago are vested interests (social and economic); the concern that one not touch sacrosanct areas (such as sex roles or sex education); concern that change in one part of the system affects other parts; conformity to norms; and rejection of outsiders.

Ways for reducing resistance also identified by Watson include the following:[1]

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[1] Adapted from Goodwin Watson, "Resistance to Change," in G. Watson (ed.), Concepts for Social Change (Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratories, National Education Association for the Cooperative Project for Education Development, 1967).

1. Use internal change agents (internal consultants) who have internal support and are committed to the project goals.
2. Introduce change which will reduce rather than add burdens to often overworked staff.
3. Provide interesting new experiences for those participating in the change or innovation.
4. Introduce change which is reasonably in accord with accepted values (not too far ahead of target group).
5. Make sure change does not threaten individual autonomy.
6. Use participant diagnosis or internal involvement in needs assessment.
7. Try to achieve a consensual decision process (so that people have a voice in changes which will affect them).
8. Show empathy for opponents of change.
9. Demonstrate support for, acceptance of, and rewards for participants.
10. Provide for communication and feedback to prevent misunderstanding.
11. Indicate openness to revision, reconsideration, and adaptation.
12. Stress a future rather than past orientation.

VIII. MEASURING RESULTS

Obviously, how leaders evaluate these learning strategies will depend on their available resources, the objective of the activity, and the purpose or questions they want to explore by the evaluation. Two of the most common purposes or strategies for evaluation will be briefly reviewed below. Following these two discussions, a continuum of possible evaluation methods will be briefly described. While these discussions on evaluation are not intended to exhaust all possible evaluation strategies and methods, it is hoped that they will provide a starting point from which to proceed.

How Much Was Learned?

Perhaps the most common purpose for evaluation is to determine whether or not the objectives of a particular learning activity have been met, and to what degree, by whom. This evaluation approach looks exclusively at the learner or trainee rather than at the learning activity. It seeks to identify whether or not the learner/trainee has acquired the knowledge, skills, attitudes, or values which the learning activity was expected to impart. A problem frequently encountered with this form of evaluation is that objectives are not stated very clearly, nor are they linked with measurable outcome criteria which specify expected standards for successful completion. Another difficulty with evaluation that looks only at accomplishment of objectives is that unexpected side effects (positive and negative) are often overlooked. In some cases, the unexpected side effects are much more important than the stated objectives. Therefore, leaders should probably not limit themselves to just measuring accomplishment of stated objectives but should attempt to identify other unexpected outcomes of the learning activity.

How Good Was the Activity?

A second purpose for evaluation is to examine or critique the learning activity rather than the competencies of the learners/trainees. This evaluation approach seeks to identify the strengths and weaknesses of both the content and process of the learning activity and thus can provide valuable information for planning future learning activities. The principal drawback in using this method of evaluation in lieu of the first one described is that it provides no direct information on the outcomes (expected or unexpected) of the learning activity. However, when this second evaluation is used in conjunction with the first, it has the potential for explaining why certain objectives were or were not met and why certain unexpected outcomes occurred.

Alternative Evaluation Methods

A continuum of methods exists for evaluating learning activities and their outcomes. At one end of the continuum is the post hoc armchair evaluation by the trainer. At the other end is the elaborate experimental design using standardized pre- and post-tests with control groups. In between these two extremes is a variety of evaluation methods which can be employed. Listed below are several evaluation methods which might be considered in planning an evaluation:

1. Continuously solicit evaluative comments by learners/trainees.
2. Have learners/trainees complete self or peer evaluations.
3. Have learners/trainees complete formal evaluations of the learning activity.
4. Have learners/trainees complete attitude/value questionnaires.
5. Have learners/trainees complete standardized or homemade knowledge/skills tests.
6. Have learners/trainees complete simulation exercises.
7. Have external person observe and critique learning experience.
8. Observe learner/trainee behavior (verbal and/or nonverbal) outside the learning experience.

It should be noted that there are several evaluation reports available as part of Project BORN FREE. For helpful process and product information, sample evaluation forms, and details of the project evaluation, readers are referred to BORN FREE Technical Reports 4, 5, 6, and 7, as well as final reports completed at the end of the second year of the project. (See "BORN FREE Products and Publications.") Two sample evaluation forms follow, one for evaluating learning strategies, one for a workshop.

Project BORN FREE

LEARNING STRATEGY RATING FORM

code ____________

Packet Level (circle) Elementary Secondary Postsecondary/Higher

Learning Strategy (Name & Number) ____________________________

Name of Rater (optional) ____________________________

School ____________________________

Consultant ____________________________

Position (circle) Teacher Counselor Administrator Parent Other

Level at which you work (circle) Elementary Secondary Postsecondary Other

Age (circle) under 25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56+

Are you a parent? (circle) Yes No

Sex (circle) Male Female

	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. The objective is clear.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The directions are clear.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The learning strategy is appropriate for achieving the objective.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The amount of time allotted is adequate for the strategy.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The resources listed are adequate.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The criteria at the end adequately indicate that the objective has been met.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The strategy is appropriate for its intended educational level.	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is likely that you would use this strategy in your institution.	1	2	3	4	5

9. How would you rate the strategy overall? (circle your rating)

excellent very good good fair poor

10. Please comment briefly below on any items you rated "agree." What changes if any would you recommend to improve this strategy if you were using it?

11. What are the major strengths of the strategy?

12. What are the major weaknesses of the strategy?

Project BORN FREE
WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

Date ____________________

Institution ______________________________

Name (optional) ____________________________

If educator (circle) Teacher Counselor Administrator Other ______________
(circle) Elementary Secondary Higher Education/Postsecondary

Sex (circle) Female Male Parent (circle) Yes No

Student (circle) Yes No Grade Level _______________

Age (circle) under 18 18-22 23-29 30-32 33-39 40-45 46-55 56+

Please circle only one number per question unless otherwise indicated.

1. I have had training, course work, or experience where I have learned the concepts of career development education.

   none at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 quite a lot

2. I feel that sex-role stereotyping limits career options for both men and women.

   not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely

3. The workshop site was appealing, attractive, and well located. I felt comfortable in these surroundings.

   quite poor 1 2 3 4 5 6 superior

4. The workshop was well organized (agenda, activities, presentations, time, breaks, etc.).

   very poorly organized 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely well organized

5. The goals of this workshop were very clear.

   not clear at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely clear

6. In my opinion, the overall goals of the workshop were accomplished, and this workshop met my expectations.

   no goals accomplished 1 2 3 4 5 6 all goals fully accomplished

7. In general, I felt that the workshop climate was open, trusting, and that information flowed freely among the participants.

   almost never 1 2 3 4 5 6 almost always

8. I felt that when I had a contribution to make, I had an opportunity to make it.

   almost never 1 2 3 4 5 6 almost always

9. I felt that the content and activities were interesting.

   almost never 1 2 3 4 5 6 almost always

10. The presenters were knowledgeable and competent.

    not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 superior

11. The presenters were warm and communicative.

not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 extremely so

12. Please rate the following if appropriate.

	very poor					extremely well done
main presentation/lecture	1	2	3	4	5	6
group exercises (learning strategies)	1	2	3	4	5	6
videotape sessions	1	2	3	4	5	6
small-group discussions	1	2	3	4	5	6
films, tapes, and other media	1	2	3	4	5	6
informal individual or group discussion	1	2	3	4	5	6
coffee breaks, lunch/dinner	1	2	3	4	5	6
panel discussion or other activities	1	2	3	4	5	6
time allotted each was appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6

13. Please rank the following in terms of its overall importance to accomplishing the goals of this workshop. Rank only activities used in this workshop (1=highest, 8=lowest).

____ main presentation/lecture
____ group exercises (learning strategies)
____ videotape sessions
____ small-group discussions
____ films, tapes, and other media
____ informal individual or group discussion
____ coffee breaks, lunch or dinner
____ panel discussion and other activities

14. I feel free to call upon the Project BORN FREE staff in my institution for assistance, resources, or general follow-up.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

15. I accepted the goals of this workshop.

did not accept 1 2 3 4 5 6 fully accepted

16. Even though I may have accepted the goals, values, or concepts of the BORN FREE Project at an intellectual level, I probably won't try to implement changes in my institution.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

17. This workshop will probably have a significant impact on my attitudes or behavior.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

18. For me, the most important aspect of the workshop was:

19. The one thing about this workshop that troubled me and was the least satisfying was:

20. Workshop evaluation forms are boring and a waste of time.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 strongly agree

IX. SAMPLE WORKSHOP/COURSE DESIGNS

The following sample designs are suggested as possible ways to structure a workshop. They are adapted from actual workshops that have been successfully implemented. The authors have attempted to offer a wide variety in the sample, to show the adaptability of the BORN FREE materials.

A. SAMPLE FORMAT FOR A TWO-PART WORKSHOP FOR SECONDARY STAFF AND PARENTS[1]

Part I: Initial Understanding

(All-Saturday Activity for Staff and Parents)

Meeting Date:	Saturday, April , 19--
Time:	8:00 - 4:00
Location:	- - - -
In-service credit:	One (1)
Cost:	$1.50
Limit:	30 participants

Participants will be engaged in a variety of activities which are designed to enhance their personal awareness of sex-role stereotyping as related specifically to career options.

This course will provide background information on BORN FREE and a chance to informally share experiences related to sex-role stereotyping with other educators and parents.

Goal: Gain an initial understanding of the facilitating and inhibiting effects which existing stereotypes and role expectations have on career choices.

8:00 - 8:30 . . . Name tags
Career mixer

8:30 - 9:00 . . . Overview of BORN FREE
- Historical background
- Main thrust

9:00 - 10:00 . . . Career Lifeline (I.C.I.)
Objective: Examine their own sex-role socialization and explore its effects on their values, interests, present and future career choices, and preferred life styles.

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[1] Adapted from a BORN FREE workshop at Hopkins North Junior High School, Hopkins, Minnesota, 1978.

10:00 - 11:00 . . . Break

11:00 - 12:00 . . . Career Family Tree
Objective: Identify a greater variety of role models available both in occupations and career patterns.

12:00 - 1:00 . . . Lunch

1:00 - 2:15 . . . Group Collage
Objective: Depict cultural expectation/stereotypes for persons of each sex.

2:15 - 2:30 . . . Break

2:30 - 3:30 . . . Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"

3:30 - 4:00 . . . Time to reflect on the activities, personal feelings, new awareness using a list of questions as a guide.

Debriefing

Part II: Implementation of Constructive Changes

(After-School Activity for Staff Members)

Prerequisites:	Attendance at Part I, equivalent, or permission of instructors
Instruction Team:	Joe Smith, Mary Jones, Bob White, Ruth Rogers
Meeting Dates:	Thursday, April 6, 13, 20, and May 4, 19--
Time of Meetings:	3:15 - 5:15
Location:	South Junior High School

One credit toward advancement or in-service pay.

This course will provide increased awareness of areas of concern having to do with sex-role stereotyping and career options. Participants will select individual or group projects directed toward implementing a change process or innovation. The last session is two weeks after the previous session to allow for time to initiate action, and will be a report and evaluation session.

Session One:

3:15 Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"

3:45 Discussion and evaluation

4:00 Learning Strategy--"Looking at Change"

4:45 Discussion: What sex-stereotype or career-related change(s) or innovation(s) would you see as appropriate? (Modify worksheets for planned changes.)

Session Two:

3:15 Videotape No. 3, "Women: Choices and Changes"

3:45 Discussion and evaluation

4:00 Brainstorming Session: Needed or possible changes in home institutions.

Session Three:

3:15 Guest Speaker: One in an atypical career.

4:15 Development of goal statements and final plans for change(s) and implementation(s).

Session Four:

Reports and evaluations: Future possibilities, commitments, plans.

B. SAMPLE FORMAT FOR A TWO-WEEK WORKSHOP OR THREE-CREDIT COURSE[1]

Participants will:

- Increase their awareness of their own attitudes and behaviors regarding sex roles and of the relationship between sex-role socialization and career options.
- Experience a content/process model of in-service training which they can adapt in developing their own implementation plans.
- Increase their knowledge of programs and change process through which they can reduce sex-role stereotyping in their own institutions.
- Expand their concept of career development education to include education, occupation, and life-style options in a developmental framework.

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[1] Adapted from 1977 BORN FREE Summer Institute.

- Develop ways to increase the involvement of parents, students, and community to reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions.

- Become familiar with efforts of business and industry to develop personnel strategies for opening career options for women and men.

Retreat:

At a recreational facility

Retreat Agenda:

Saturday

8:30 - 9:00	Name Tags and Career Mixer
9:00 - 9:30	BORN FREE Overview Introduction of Staff
9:30 - 10:30	Getting Acquainted: Learning Strategy--"Facilitators and Inhibitors of Career Development"
10:30 - 10:50	Break
10:50 - 12:00	Learning Strategy--"Collective Collage"
12:00 - 2:00	Lunch and Recreating
2:00 - 3:00	Learning Strategy--"Career Lifeline"
3:00 - 3:10	Break
3:10 - 5:00	Learning Strategy--"Group Roles"
5:00 - 6:00	Social Hour
6:00 - 7:00	Dinner
7:00 - 7:45	Learning Strategy--"Role Reversal"
7:45 - 8:40	Judging Collages
8:40 - 8:50	Learning Strategy (Dramatic Reading)--"Masculine/Feminine"
8:50 - 9:00	Debriefing

Workshop Agenda:

Monday

8:00 - 9:00	Registration
9:00 - 9:30	Retreat recap--workshop overview (grades, texts, tapes, journal writing, etc.)
9:30 - 10:00	Pretest
10:00 - 10:30	Learning Strategy (Content)--"Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style"
10:30 - 11:30	Career Development Conceptual Framework
11:30 - 12:00	Discussion
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 1:30	"Psychosocial Visit" Orientation
1:30 - 2:30	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Early Sex-role Messages"
2:30 - 3:50	Team Planning or Tape Viewing (read systems diagnosis, review packet at your level)
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections (include reactions to readings)

Tuesday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Literature review--Elementary
10:00 - 10:20	Break
10:20 - 12:00	Literature reviews--Secondary and Higher Education
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 1:30	Videotape No. 1, "BORN FREE: A World of Options"
1:30 - 2:15	Videotape evaluation and discussion, using Video Viewers' Guide No. 1
2:15 - 2:45	Instructions for videotape viewing--"Video Tape Festival"
2:45 - 3:50	Group Process Guidelines for Workshop Leaders
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Wednesday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:15	Assertion Training
10:15 - 10:35	Break
10:35 - 11:20	Assertion Training (cont.)
11:20 - 12:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Career Family Tree"
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:00	Learning Strategy (Content)--"Looking at Change"
2:00 - 3:50	Team planning or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Thursday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:15	Illustrative Programs (Elementary, Secondary, Post-secondary/Higher Education)
10:15 - 10:30	Break
10:30 - 12:00	Illustrative Programs (cont.)
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Joe Househusband"
2:00 - 3:50	Team planning or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Friday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Conceptual Model to Bring about Change
10:00 - 10:15	Resistance to Change
10:15 - 10:35	Break
10:35 - 11:15	Becoming Change Agents--discussion with practitioners and workshop staff
11:15 - 12:00	Module Activity (Content)--"Force-Field Analysis"

Monday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:15	How to Deal with Administrators

10:15 - 10:35	Break
10:35 - 11:30	Announcements
11:30 - 12:00	Evaluating Your Activities
12:00 - 2:00	Learning Activity (Content)--"Textbook Analysis of Sex-Role Stereotypes"
2:00 -3:50	Team Planning--Tape Viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Tuesday

9:00 - 10:00	Videotapes No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"; No. 3, "Women: Choices and Changes"
10:00 - 10:45	Discussion of video, using *Video Viewers' Guides No. 2 and No. 3*
10:45 - 11:45	Learning Strategy--"Strategies for Change"
11:45 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 4:00	Learning Strategy--"Psychosocial Visit" Visit evaluations and reflections

Wednesday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Share psychosocial visits
10:00 - 10:20	Break
10:20 - 11:00	Learning Strategies review/evaluation
11:00 - 12:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Magic Seminar"
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 3:50	Work on implementation plan or tape viewing
3:50 - 4:00	Journal reflections

Thursday

8:30 - 9:00	Materials browsing
9:00 - 10:00	Learning Strategy (Process)--"Physical Continuum"
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 11:15	Catch-up Session Relating career education to developmental approaches Vocational interest tests Sex-role identity development
11:15 - 12:00	Learning Strategy (Content)--"Commitment to Change"
12:00 - 2:00	Lunch
2:00 - 3:30	Team planning or videotape viewing
3:30 - 4:00	Final journal reflections (collect, read)

Friday

8:30 - 10:00	Present implementation plans (by levels)
10:00 - 10:45	Break
10:45 - 12:00	Evaluation and Posttest

C. SAMPLE FORMAT FOR A TWO-HOUR COLLEGE WORKSHOP[1]

Sex-Role Stereotyping: Its Influence on Curricular Choices and Career Options

WHEN: Wednesday, May 17, 1979 - 10:15 a.m.

WHERE: Room 421 Student Union

10:15 a.m. Introductory Comments

Joe Jones, Director
CLA Career Development Office
"Career Advising in Liberal Arts"

Mary Smith, Director, Women's Center
Instructor, Family Science
"Myths and Realities of Sex-Role Stereotyping and the Effects upon Course Selection"

10:45 a.m. Coffee, in Discussion Groups
Distribution of graphs showing imbalance in departmental enrollment and dropout rates for previous five years; and prerequisite differences between departments

11:00 a.m. Presentation: Implications of departmental enrollment data for advising on the departmental and premajor level

12:00 p.m. Lunch at the Campus Club, including distribution of materials packets: Abstract of Project BORN FREE, Video Abstracts, Sample Strategies and Articles from Postsecondary Packet, and list of BORN FREE Products and Publications

Sample Preregistration Form

Return to: Joe Jones, Director
CLA Career Development Office
203 College Hall

Name: ______________________________ Dept.: ________________

_____ I will be attending the meeting

_____ I will be staying for lunch _____ I will not be staying for lunch

_____ I will not be able to attend the meeting. The following departmental representative will be there. Name: ______________________________

Office: ______________________________ Phone #: ________________

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1. Adapted from a BORN FREE workshop sponsored by the Career Planning and Placement Office, College of Liberal Arts, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1978.

SAMPLE FORMAT FOR INVITATIONAL LETTER FOR COLLEGE WORKSHOP

Dear CLA Staff Member:

As a departmental adviser to undergraduates, you are in a position to discuss with students their course selections and career alternatives. Some of us who have similar opportunities are concerned about the possible influences sex-role stereotypes may have on the academic and career decisions students are making. I would like to invite you to attend a meeting to discuss this concern with other department and pre-major advising representatives. As a result of this meeting we hope to identify ways in which students can expand their curricular choices and career options.

We will meet at 10:15 a.m., Wednesday, May 24th, in room 421 of the Student Union. Lunch will be in the Campus Club. The meeting is sponsored by Project BORN FREE.[1] If you cannot attend this meeting I hope you will request someone else within your department to do so, as we would like your discipline to be represented.

Sincerely,

Director
Career Development Office

cc:

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1. A federally funded program to reduce sex-role stereotyping and expand career options for women and men.

X. SUMMARY OF POSTSECONDARY/HIGHER EDUCATION LITERATURE REVIEW

The BORN FREE literature review at the postsecondary/higher education level examines the relationship between sex-role socialization and career socialization in a variety of ways. The review looks at psychological variables such as self-concept, self-esteem, locus of control, achievement motivation, affiliation needs, expectancies, and attributions of causal relationships. It examines occupational sex-typing, role expectations and conflicts, educational-occupational distributions, and attitudes of significant others. It also identifies institutional variables such as barriers to role-free career development and describes interventions now being used in institutions to deal with those barriers. A review of the major findings follows.

Though the research has not revealed many well-established cross-situational sex differences in ability or psychological traits, there are widespread stereotypes about sex differences held by both sexes which influence their judgments of the potential or quality of work of men and women. The issue in sex differences seems to be not so much what differences do exist between the sexes, but what differences are believed to exist and how those beliefs influence behavior. Significant areas of research include:

Self-Concept and Self-Esteem. Contrary to widespread belief, women do not have lower self-esteem than men, that is, when generalized self-esteem is measured (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). However, when confidence on a specified task is measured, females do have lower expectations of themselves. Self-concept and sex-role stereotypes are closely related in other rather complex ways. Our society values achievement and competence, but sees them as "masculine." Men who see themselves as competent have higher self-esteem while men who are not perceived as competent would be expected to be viewed very negatively (Feather & Simon, 1975). Women who see themselves as competent in "male" terms may or may not have high self-esteem, depending upon their situation in life and their susceptibility to conflicts or doubts about their femininity. Conflicts between competence and "femininity" seem most acute at adolescence and during the college years.

Locus of Control. A sense of power or control over one's own fate is often proposed as an important internal variable influencing career development or achievement striving. The most striking finding in the locus of control literature is that even though females and males do not differ in that trait while they are young, during the college years women begin reporting less control over their own fates. Another finding which is especially interesting in relation to sex-role stereotyping is that college students of both sexes who have strong internal control beliefs describe themselves more positively and with more traits stereotypically seen as characteristic of the other sex (Keller, 1974). There is, in summary, evidence that persons who believe that they have control over their own environment are also more likely to be flexible and innovative in the life roles they choose and in their view of themselves. They also tend to be more active in striving for achievement, with the exception of persons who belong to groups which are socially powerless or discriminated against. In this case, external control scores may indicate an accurate perception of the environment with its limited rewards.

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1. From Selected review of the literature on career development and sex-role stereotyping at the postsecondary/higher education level. For complete reference lists, check this source.

Fear of Success. Studies subsequent to Horner's (1972) indicate that fear of success is not limited to women, though the nature of the negative feeling about success may differ. Hoffman (1974) found that men tended to question the value of success in general, while women emphasized fears of social rejection, or turning off men. It seems clear that sex-role norms exist which specify when and where both men and women can appropriately be successful, and it is in deviating from those norms where persons experience negative social consequences. So those women and men who formulate career plans which are innovative or "non-traditional" may be in particular need of support, especially from role models.

Expectancies. When females and males are asked to predict how well they will perform on a specified task, females consistently expect to do less well than men do. A number of explanations have been offered, such as this one: females, in stating lower expectancies, are conforming to a norm of feminine modesty. When females and males receive feedback about previous performance on a task, both sexes are able to use that information to change their estimations. However, men tend to overestimate their performance and women to underestimate theirs (Crandall, 1975; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). This is further confirmed in studies which look at high school students' beliefs about their ability to do college work. Despite the higher high school grades which females earn, they are significantly less likely than their male peers to believe that they "definitely have the ability to do college work" (Cross, 1975). The fact that women are underrepresented in many prestigious occupations may therefore be explained only in part by the external barriers that limited their success; the internal attitudinal barriers which some women have also discourages aspiration to such occupations. The causal factors may include the acceptance of vicarious achievement, through an achieving husband. Another may be the fact that there may be several types of achievement motivation -- those more characteristic of males and which stress autonomy, power over others, and social status, and those which are strong in females, such as persistence and effort expended toward mastery of a task. Whatever the causal factors, the evidence is that compared to females, males have higher career aspirations and anticipate more successful performance in a variety of tasks.

Attribution of Causes for Success and Failure. Though there is some evidence that many women tend to take less responsibility for the outcome of their performance in academic achievement areas than do men, in general other variables are more critical than gender in determining attribution patterns. The cause that is attributed depends heavily on prior expectations, on aspects of the situation and on relatively stable attribution beliefs. These attribution patterns can constitute internal barriers to achievement or self-development in men or women; for instance, one study (Kukla, 1972) reported that men with high achievement motivation attribute their success to high ability and effort, while they perceive their failures as due to lack of effort. Thus failure is attributed to a cause that can change and is under personal control. Frieze (1975) points out that since women are expected to be less competent and successful than men, their attributions about their performance will reflect that cultural stereotype. Such women (and men with low self-esteem) might be expected to attempt less challenging tasks, undervalue the success they achieve, and attribute failure to lack of ability.

Occupational Opportunities and Sex-Role Socialization. In order to obtain an accurate picture of female and male socialization, it is important to look at the issue of occupational distribution. Women, 37 million of them, now comprise 40% of the labor force. Though women work mainly for economic reasons, 1/3 of them are concentrated in seven occupations, many of them low paying, low level, and dead end. Enrollments in vocational schools and colleges are consistent with the occupational picture--students tend to restrict themselves to stereotypic occupational areas. However, there are indications of changing roles of men and women in the future; some students may be rejecting stereotyped views of sex roles because they find them inappropriate to contemporary life. Voss and Skinner (1975) believe that women today seem to feel more comfortable about expressing a self-achievement orientation than did women in past years.

The messages which children learn about what is appropriate behavior seem to be translated into occupational behavior as well. Boys are encouraged to be aggressive, competitive and independent, while girls are rewarded for being passive and dependent. Shinar (1975) found that occupations stereotypically associated with high levels of competence, rationality, and assertion were viewed as masculine, whereas occupations stereotypically viewed as feminine were associated with dependency, passivity, nurturance, and interpersonal warmth.

Several studies which have investigated the possibility of more androgynous occupational behaviors indicate that sex roles do lead some people to restrict their behavior, but that other people are able to function effectively by making use of a much wider range of behaviors. These persons are able to be "both masculine and feminine, both instrumental and expressive, both agentic and communal, depending upon the situational appropriateness" (Bem, 1975). As more and more persons give themselves permission to act in accordance with a given situation, they will learn to deal with their total personalities. They can take control of their lives by choosing career areas that relate to their abilities, interests, and aptitudes, not because of their gender.

One of the primary problems of those persons, especially women, who move in the direction of higher achievement is the role conflict between career and family. It is assumed that men will choose an occupation, marry, and have a family, and that they will not have any trouble combining those roles. The same is not true for females. A woman choosing to remain single is thought to be unusual, while women wanting to combine career and marriage face pressure from families, the academic environment, and often from their future husbands (Leonard, Hansen, & Knefelkamp, 1974). Many of the studies on role conflict were based on the assumption of the possibility of multiple roles or shared roles. Studies have just begun which reflect the stresses and strains as well as the satisfactions of dual-career families.

Another issue which faces women who want to use their abilities in the work world is the lack of role models, both occupational role models and role models for a nontraditional life style. Both women and men, by exposure to role models with whom they can identify, can begin to see themselves as capable of performing well in jobs and combining career, family, and leisure-time interests in new and androgynous ways. Mentors, those persons who introduce younger persons to the intricacies of the occupation, paving their way, can also play an increasingly important part in the career development of women. Both Sheehy (1976) and Hennig

(1974)--whose 1970 study Sheehy cites--found that the women professionals they studied had been nurtured at some point by a mentor who helped them believe in their abilities.

Parents, too, especially mothers, play an important part in their daughters' career decisions and aspirations (Tangri, 1972; Etaugh, 1975; Valentine, 1975). Significant men in the lives of women also influence their career choices (Hawley, 1972).

Institutional Barriers to Career Development. It is clear that by the time young women and men reach college age, their socialization to careers and to sex-stereotypical behavior has been limiting. However, there is some evidence that postsecondary education still has an impact on students, through peer relationships, through the relationships with faculty as mentors and role models, and through the whole milieu--curriculum, residential life, etc. Although in recent years many legal and educational barriers to female achievement (and it is primarily female achievement which has been discouraged) have been removed, there still remain some institutional practices which have served as special deterrents. Even in rather recent years admissions policies have been in effect which required a higher predictive score of females than of males, in order to maintain a quota system. However, such discriminatory practices are clearly now illegal and are hopefully on the wane. Still, other more subtle practices do effectively act as barriers to the full career development of women. They include inflexible programs which do not consider the needs of the nontraditional student who may wish to go at a nontraditional pace, and financial aid policies, such as limiting employment opportunities for women or requiring full-time attendance to be eligible for financial aid, which result in women getting less than their share of available money (Westervelt, 1975).

Enrollment patterns provide evidence for the notion that sex-role ideology continues to affect the career development of women. For instance, the more advanced the educational program, the fewer women there are. More females than males complete high school; fewer females than males enter college and few graduate. Fewer females earn more advanced degrees, and fewer yet are serving on college faculties. And as has already been mentioned, students uphold the traditional stereotypes. Feldman (1974) found that undergraduate students regard engineering, physics, medicine, agriculture, chemistry, and forestry as masculine disciplines; and art, English, and nursing as feminine disciplines. The enrollments in these fields are congruent with those perceptions; students in fact show great awareness of what men and women "ought" to be.

Signs of change in that pattern are encouraging. The proportion of women enrolled in professional schools for such fields as law, medicine, architecture, and veterinary medicine has risen steadily since 1960 (On Campus with Women, April 1976). The trend toward increased female enrollment in those professional programs and in nontraditional vocational programs may indeed continue; on October 13, 1976, President Ford signed into law the Education Amendments of 1976, including provisions for ending sex stereotyping and discrimination in vocational education, which affect sex discrimination in education.

Other factors besides those clearly illegal admissions and financial aid practices have limited the career options of women and men. These blatant (yet difficult to change) demonstrations of discrimination include counseling which ranges from mildly sexist to clearly discriminatory; the dearth of role models in faculty and administrator and other professional ranks; sex-biased textbooks; faculty advising which is discouraging or condescending; lack of either female or male mentors; inaccurate, sexist, inadequate or obsolete vocational information; sexist attitudes demonstrated in classrooms and laboratories by faculty and peers; the behavior of placement counselors and campus recruiters who discourage innovative choices; and the lack of opportunity for "hands-on" work or internship experiences.

The absence of female role models among teachers and faculty has been remarked on at length in recent articles, including Westervelt (1975) and all issues of On Campus with Women. It is conceivable that the woman student, observing the underrepresentation of women in certain careers, including those of higher academic status, decides that certain life choices--for instance, for the higher intellectual life--are "for men only."

The psychological services provided in institutions of higher education often reinforce sex-role stereotypes, as Mishler (1975) found in her review of the literature: "In general, both male and female counselors tend to be biased and to reinforce the cultural dictum that women pursue traditionally feminine goals." A related bias issue is the use of sex-stereotyped tests and occupational information, as well as college admissions materials, textbooks, and catalogs (Harway, 1977). Harway alerts counselors to take responsibility for raising "questions about every tool they use, whether it is an interest inventory, career brochure, college catalog, or the Occupational Outlook Handbook."

Interventions Aimed at Reducing Sex-Role Stereotyping. Instead of liberating women and men from the bonds of sex roles, it seems apparent that post-secondary/higher education institutions have perpetuated the stereotyping learned in the home and the public schools. However, it is gratifying to learn that some deliberate interventions have been made in an effort to reduce overt and subtle sex bias in colleges and universities. The literature search did not reveal any interventions in the postsecondary vocational schools; however, it is expected that a number of activities are now underway because of the heavy provision in the 1976 Education Amendments for reducing sex discrimination in vocational education and the naming of sex equity coordinators in every state.

In colleges and universities, the most widespread efforts to address the special needs of women have been made by the many continuing education programs for women and more recently by women's centers and women's studies departments. According to a catalog published by the Clearinghouse on Women's Studies (Who's Who and Where in Women's Studies, 1974), over 4,000 women's studies courses were being offered in 1974 on campuses throughout the country.

Part-time or "reduced schedule" study is gaining momentum; other special support programs which provide financial assistance for women to continue advanced studies on a part-time basis have been instigated. The community colleges have been particularly active in serving the career development needs of women by offering low-cost, flexible, nontraditional programs. Community colleges and external degree programs in four-year colleges have often made it possible to obtain credit for life experiences and credit by examination.

Efforts to train and retrain counselors, to raise their awareness, or even to provide new information which would decrease sex bias in career counseling are apparently not widespread. However, Schlossberg and Pietrofesa (1973) describe models for counselor education based on the notion that sex stereotyping exists among counselors and that it can be modified. The counseling profession's most vigorous attack on sex bias was the project on Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities (SEGO), a joint project of the American Personnel and Guidance Association and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. After over 300 workshops on sex equality at all levels of education were held, a handbook was published (Verheyden-Hilliard, 1976) which shares the experience gained by the SEGO staff in designing all those workshops.

Written materials such as the SEGO *Handbook* are the most common of interventions which are directed at professionals. Numbers of publications, journals, books, and bibliographies and the subjects of career development, sex-role socialization, and women's development are now reaching the hands of counselors and other educators. Among them are two issues of *The Counseling Psychologist* (1973, 1976); annotated bibliographies (Westervelt and Fixter, 1971; Phelps, Farmer & Backer, 1977); books (Kundsin, 1974; Kreps, 1971, 1976; Hansen and Rapoza, 1978; Osipow, 1975); the Carnegie Commission's *Opportunities for Women in Higher Education* (1973); and a gold mine of information--a newsletter, *On Campus with Women*-- published by the Project on the Status and Education of Women of the Association of American Colleges.

By far the largest number of programs to enhance the potential of women in higher education use the vehicles of groups, seminars, or workshops. Harrison's compilation (1976) is the most comprehensive resource for such programs (some offered by community agencies but most by educational institutions). In an attempt to tap the underutilized scientific resource which women represent, foundations such as National Science Foundation, Mobil Foundation, and other philanthropic and educational organizations have sponsored workshops and other programs to attract women into scientific and technical careers.

Life planning, creative problem-solving, decision making, job-seeking, leadership-training and personal development groups are also interventions being implemented at the higher education level, many of them serving the special needs of women. Only one reference to a program which incorporates awareness of the influence of sex stereotyping on both male and female students appears in the literature (Blimline, 1976). As part of a community college orientation course, several segments were devoted to helping male and female students explore career goals with an awareness of the influence of sexism and stereotypic attitudes on their occupational choices.

Besides the many social and psychological influences which restrict women's choice of careers in traditionally male fields, primarily the sciences, another limiting factor is that most women avoid the mathematics courses in high school which open doors to college programs in the sciences and technical fields. Ernest (1976) and Tobias (1976) cite several programs which have been designed to counteract math avoidance--a program which funds women mathematicians to visit secondary schools, giving lectures and serving as role models; special recruitment efforts by colleges into math courses; and skills-building efforts, including "math anxiety" courses.

The dearth of role models has been addressed by inviting professional women to dialog with women students in conference, seminar, and workshop formats (Davis, 1974; Friskey, 1974; Goad & Plotsky, 1976; and Smith, 1976).

Co-residential living is one aspect of college life that may support the goals of reducing sex bias in higher education. Reid (1976) concluded that women in a coeducational residence form many more and varied relationships with men than their counterparts who live in all-women dorms: "The women in coed dorms become more comfortable around men; they benefit from having real people, men and women, to test out preconceived ideas of what is 'womanly' or 'manly.' As a result, they tend to abandon stereotyped notions."

These many interventions are gratifying. However, the lack of attention to the consequences of sex bias on males as well as on females is a serious deficit. Other serious gaps in the literature are that there are no reports of efforts to deal with faculty sexism in the classroom or in the advising office. Nor do we find many accounts of how and when, or if counselors obtain current information on careers, educational programs, or labor projections.

This review has focused on literature relevant to the building of options, reassessment of norms, and freeing of roles through educational equity as suggested in the project's acronym, BORN FREE. The scope of the review has been intended to assist in understanding and analyzing the implications of sex-role stereotyping for men and women in postsecondary and higher education and to describe interventions which are presently being used to reduce the influence of sex-role stereotypes on career options.

XI. BORN FREE DEFINITIONS

Aggressive behavior -- involves standing up for one's own rights, beliefs, and feelings in a way which does not respect the rights of the other person.

Androgyny -- used to refer to "sex-free" roles. The androgynous person is viewed as able to shift roles with the changing demands of a situation without threat. The androgynous individual is comfortable being assertive, self-confident, independent, dependent, nurturant, and tender when appropriate (Farmer, 1976).

Assertive behavior -- involves standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in direct, honest, and appropriate ways without infringing on the rights of others.

Career -- "a time-extended working out of a purposeful life pattern through work, paid or unpaid, undertaken and engaged in by the individual" (AVA-NGVA Commission on Career Guidance and Vocational Education, 1973). It is not synonymous with occupation, but rather includes various life roles and positions over the life span, of which occupation is only one.

Career development -- focuses on seeking, obtaining, and processing information about self, occupational-educational alternatives, life style and role options, and socioeconomic and labor market trends. It is a continuous, lifelong, person-centered process of developmental experiences. Career development involves engaging in purposeful planning in order to make reasoned decisions about work and its relation to other life roles with benefit to self and society (Hansen, 1976).

Career development variable -- a major task area from one of the several stages in the Career Development Curriculum (CDC) model.

The following career development variables are referred to in the training materials.

Achievement motivation -- in simplistic terms, the desire and motivating forces to achieve. A model of achievement motivation developed by Atkinson and Feather (1966) and McClelland (1971) identified several critical factors for high achievement motivation which included an internal standard of excellence, independence, persistence, preference for tasks of intermediate difficulty, high academic performance, and clearly defined goals.

Career information processing -- the manner in which an individual incorporates knowledge of the world of work with her/his own values, interests, abilities, and life style needs to make possible career decisions.

Influencers -- any group or force thought to exert some kind of influence on the development of individuals. Influencers might include parents, teachers, counselors, schools (as institutions), media, and peers.

Interventions -- possible strategies for implementing change in institutions and/or with individuals.

Self-concept -- an individual's perceptions of his or her abilities, attitudes, and other personal resources or characteristics.

Sense of agency -- locus of control--an individual's perceptions of whether or not she or he can personally control her/his environment. A person with an internal locus of control would be internally motivated to make her/his own choices; a person with an external locus of control (or sense of agency) yields to external cues, pressures, and/or other people in controlling the events in her/his own life.

Sex-role stereotyping -- assumptions made and messages given to students (in educational institutions) which tend to reinforce or encourage stereotyping. (Example: some textbook materials used in schools portray males and females only in traditional stereotypic roles.)

Career education -- a developmental, deliberate, and collaborative effort by educators, parents, and business-industry-labor-government personnel to systematically promote the career development of all persons. It creates experiences to help individuals learn academic, vocational, and basic skills and achieve a sense of agency in making informed career decisions; and master the developmental tasks facing them at various life stages through curriculum, counseling, and community.

Career guidance -- a systematic program involving counselors, teachers, and parents. It is part of career education, designed to increase one's knowledge of self; of occupations, training paths, and life styles; of labor market trends, and employability skills; and of the career decision-making process. It helps the individual gain self-direction through purposefully and consciously integrating work, family, leisure, and community roles.

Career socialization -- the differential experiences and processes used to prepare females and males for the educational, occupational, and life style roles and choices society has defined as being appropriate for their particular sex. Racial, ethnic, age, and socioeconomic factors also are a part of one's career socialization.

Change agents -- those persons who participate in and often instigate institutional change process--through strategic risk taking and calculated, organized planning. Change agents also refer to those persons who work in and model behaviors which affect persons and institutions. (Adapted from SEGO, Verheyden-Hilliard, 1976).

Nonassertive behavior -- involves the violation of one's rights by failing to express honestly what one thinks, believes, or feels.

Occupation -- used in a narrower sense, occupation refers to one's employment or job, e.g., teacher, counselor, business person, fire fighter, mechanic, etc.

Occupational sex-typing -- the differential assumptions and expectations about occupations that lead to segregation of the sexes by occupation.

Role -- the part or parts a person assumes at a given time and place. A person can have a variety of roles at any given time.

Role model -- a person who exhibits behavior after which another person tries to pattern his/her behavior.

Role reversal -- procedure thought to help reduce or eliminate distorted perception, misunderstandings, defensiveness, and either/or thinking. Through discussion or role playing, a person "takes the role of another person," assuming all characteristics that accompany the particular role.

Sexism -- any arbitrary stereotypes of either males or females which cause pre-judgment on the basis of their sex (gender). (Adapted from SEGO, Verheyden-Hilliard, 1976).

Sex-role socialization -- refers to the differential experiences and processes used to prepare females and males for the roles society has defined as being appropriate for their particular sex.

Sex-role stereotype -- defined as the assumption that all females or all males, because they share a common gender, have the same characteristics, such as the same interests, values, and roles.

Socialization -- the process by which children and adults are prepared to occupy and perform various roles. Socialization is achieved through the accumulation of life experiences that transmit messages of appropriate knowledge, attitudes, and skills to perform functions necessary for these roles. Socialization processes for young children are often deliberate and readily observable, as children are being prepared to carry out a variety of complex social, physical, economic, political, and psychological roles as adults. Many adult socialization processes are subtle and unnoticeable, because these processes consist of continued reinforcement for roles already learned.

Stereotype -- an assumption that because a number of individuals share one attribute--e.g., race or sex--they are similar in many others.

Work -- broadly conceived to include nonpaid as well as paid employment, educational endeavors, and some avocational efforts.

XII. THE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Higher Education/Postsecondary Level
Goals and Objectives

Guide to Learning Strategies

The Learning Strategies

HIGHER EDUCATION/POSTSECONDARY LEVEL GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

	Learning Activities Code:
I. PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.	
A. Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each.	I.A.1.,2.
B. Distinguish common career patterns of females and males.	I.B.1.,2,3,4.
C. Identify the factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.	I.C.1.,2,3,4,5.
D. Distinguish a "career" from "occupation" and "job" and the implications this has for the process of expanding career options.	I.D.1.
II. PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.	
A. Examine mythical sex differences; list and explain differences between males and females.	II.A.1.,2,3.
B. Cite accurate information about the history and current status of women's employment participation in the United States.	II.B.1.,2.
C. Cite implications of current employment practices for affirmative action programs.	II.C.1.,2,3.
D. Examine psychological and environmental factors which influence or are related to career options.	II.D.1.
III. PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.	
A. Recognize facilitating and inhibiting effects which being a woman or man has had on each participant's career development.	III.A.1.,2,3.
B. Recognize other persons--parents, siblings, friends, peers, teachers, counselors, etc.--who had a facilitating or inhibiting influence on participants' own lives and career decisions.	III.B.1.,2,3.

	Learning Activities Code:
C. Recognize various decision points in one's career development and one's own responsibility in the career development process.	III.C.1.,2.
IV. PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.	
A. Examine arguments in favor of career development education and sex fairness in light of the goals of their institution.	IV.A.1.,2,3.
B. Demonstrate the relation of liberal arts to flexible student planning for occupation and career.	IV.B.1.,2.
C. Generate a list of alternative career or life style options within their own discipline area.	IV.C.1.
V. PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.	
A. Trace the interaction among various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.	V.A.1.,2.
B. Describe the ways in which religion contributes to socialization into traditional sex roles.	V.B.1.,2,3.
C. Compare recent reforms in language and leadership roles within religious institutions with earlier patterns and trace the influence of each on career development and sex-role socialization.	V.C.1.,2,3.
VI. PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.	
A. Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.	VI.A.1.,2,3,4,5.
B. Examine how the socialization process affects later occupational choices.	VI.B.1,2.
C. Identify some of the main ways in which sex-role expectations are conveyed to individuals.	VI.C.1.,2.
D. Look at the ways in which the mass media perpetuate stereotypes.	VI.D.1.,2.
E. Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.	VI.E.1.,2,3,4,5.

		Learning Activities Code:
F.	Develop new norms or patterns for males and females in a more androgynous or liberated society.	VI.F.1.,2,3,4.
VII.	PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.	
A.	Explain the relationship between expectations for success, sex-role stereotypes, and achievements, distinguishing between patterns for men and women.	VII.A.1.,2.
B.	List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.	VII.B.1.,2,3,4,5.
C.	Drawing on personal experience as a student adviser, teacher, or administrator, explain the ratio of males and females in their field, considering those factors that tend to encourage women and men students to enroll in certain courses and to avoid others.	VII.C.1.,2,3,4.
D.	Recognizing that currently boys exhibit more interest in mathematics and science, whereas girls exhibit more interest in language and literature, demonstrate the ways in which these early socialization patterns affect the selection of majors by undergraduate male and female students.	VII.D.1.,2.
VIII.	PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.	
A.	Appreciate the variety of roles each person plays in relation to students.	VIII.A.1.
B.	Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choice on the part of female and male students.	VIII.B.1.,2,3,4.
C.	Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to promote free academic choices and vocational choice on the part of female and male students.	VIII.C.1.
D.	Identify textbook and other written and illustrative material used by workshop participants or others in their institution which stereotypes or excludes women or men.	VIII.D.1.

	Learning Activities Code:
E. Specify the complex ways in which teachers counselors, administrators, etc., may serve as successful role models or mentors for both sexes.	VIII.E.1.
F. Analyze ways in which career/vocational tests inhibit or facilitate non-sex-typed career development.	VIII.F.1.,2.
IX. PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.	
A. Identify institutional policies which allocate differing sums for men's and women's athletics.	IX.A.1.
B. Detail the ways in which differential financing of men's and women's athletics has impact upon the learning environment and the future choices for male and female students.	IX.B.1.
C. Identify ways in which requirements for full-time attendance in education programs inhibit the free choice of women and men.	IX.C.1.
D. Recognize the need to examine hiring practices within their institution and how such practices de facto work against the achievement of women.	IX.D.1.,2,3.
E. Understand the recent and pending federal and state legislation regarding sex discrimination in education and career development of women and men.	IX.E.1.
F. Identify the advantages likely to accrue when institutions shift away from sex stereotyping to programs which are liberating for both women and men.	IX.F.1.
G. Recognize the impact of official and unofficial institutional publications on career choice and sex-role attitudes.	IX.G.1.
X. PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.	
A. Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.	X.A.1.,2,3,4.
B. Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.	X.B.1.,2.

	Learning Activities Code:
C. Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.	X.C.1.,2.
D. Identify various strategies for making change in their home institutions.	X.D.1.,2,3,4.
E. Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.	X.E.1.,2.
F. Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.	X.F.1.,2,3.

GUIDE TO LEARNING STRATEGIES

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
I.A.1.	Career Lifeline	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
I.A.2.	Career Autobiography	P/E	SR-L CD-M TL-L/M
I.B.1.	Career Patterns	P/E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
I.B.2.	Emerging Career Patterns	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-L
I.B.3.	Women: Choices and Changes (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.B.4.	Men: Choices and Changes (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.1.	Collective Collage: Conceptualizing Career-Related Sex Roles	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
I.C.2.	Role Identification	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
I.C.3.	Male/Female Career Patterns	E	SR-M CD-M TL-L
I.C.4.	For Singles Only?	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.C.5.	Introductions: Career Influencers	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
I.D.1.	Career/Occupation/ Job/Life Style	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L

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Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
II.A.1.	Fact or Fiction?	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
II.A.2.	Sex Differences: Myths and Realities	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
II.A.3.	Double Jeopardy	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
II.B.1.	Women Who Work for Pay	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
II.B.2.	Work Force Quiz	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
II.C.1.	Old Boys' Network	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
II.C.2.	Impact of Social Policy	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
II.C.3.	Psychosocial Visit	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
II.D.1.	Reviewing the Literature	E	SR-M CD-H TL-L
III.A.1.	Magic Seminar	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.A.2.	Facilitators and Inhibitors	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
III.A.3.	Are Females Persons?	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
III.B.1.	Occupational Family Tree	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
III.B.2.	Parenting - Three Generations (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.B.3.	Parents as Influencers (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
III.C.1.	Deciding: Fate or Choice?	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
III.C.2.	On Joining the Old Boys' Club	E	SR-H CD-M TL-H
IV.A.1.	Vocational Education and Sex-Role Stereotyping	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L
IV.A.2.	Fornbee College: A Role Play	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
IV.A.3.	Analyzing Mission/ Goal Statements	E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
IV.B.1.	Skills Applicable to Many Careers	E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
IV.B.2.	Curriculum and Career Development	E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
IV.C.1.	Sex-Role Transcenders	E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
V.A.1.	Ways to Live: A Values Exercise	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
V.A.2.	Time Pie	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
V.B.1.	Jesus Was a Feminist	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
V.B.2.	Messages	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
V.B.3.	Biblical Sex Roles	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
V.C.1.	New Language for the Gospel	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
V.C.2.	Career Patterns and Religious Institutions	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
V.C.3.	Men and Women in Religious Leadership Roles	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.A.1.	Masculine/Feminine: A Reading	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-H
VI.A.2.	How to Tell a Man from a Woman	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.A.3.	Woman--Which Includes Man, of Course	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.A.4.	Men's Lives (Film)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
VI.A.5.	Stereotypes of the Physically Disabled	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.B.1.	Early Influences on Occupational Choice	P/E	SR-L CD-M TL-L

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
VI.B.2.	The Joy of Choosing (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.C.1.	Sex-Role Transmitters	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.C.2.	Script Checklist	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.D.1.	Media Messages	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.D.2.	Seeing Is Believing	P/E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
VI.E.1.	Watch Your Language	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
VI.E.2.	You Are What You Say	P/E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VI.E.3.	Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
VI.E.4.	Clichés, Witticisms, and Truisms	P/E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
VI.E.5.	Words That Label	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VI.F.1.	Characteristics of Women and Men	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.F.2.	Society's Influence on Sex Roles	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VI.F.3.	Physical Continuum	P/E	SR-H CD-L TL-H

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
VI.F.4.	The Androgynous Personality	E	SR-H CD-L TL-H
VII.A.1.	Career Inhibitors: Informal Institutional Practices	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VII.A.2.	Great, and Not-So-Great Expectations	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
VII.B.1.	The Pressure Cooker of Expectations	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VII.B.2.	Role Conflicts	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VII.B.3.	BORN FREE: A World of Options (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VII.B.4.	Role Models in Nontraditional Careers	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VII.B.5.	Women and Men in Nontraditional Careers: A Fantasy Exercise	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
VII.C.1.	Institutional Assessment	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
VII.C.2.	Your Support System	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
VII.C.3.	Schools as Influencers (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VII.C.4.	Colleges as Influencers (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
VII.D.1.	Socializing Career Interests	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
VII.D.2.	Influences on Program Selection	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VIII.A.1.	The Roles We Play	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
VIII.B.1.	Assumptions and Behaviors	E	SR-M CD-L TL-L/M
VIII.B.2.	Student/Educator Interactions	E	SR-L CD-L TL-L/M
VIII.B.3.	Interactions: A Role Play	E	SR-L/M CD-L/M TL-M
VIII.B.4.	Student/Counselor Interactions	E	SR-L/M CD-M TL-M
VIII.C.1.	Expanding Horizons	E	SR-M CD-M TL-L/M
VIII.D.1.	Analyzing Institutional Material	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VIII.E.1.	Role Models and Mentors	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
VIII.F.1.	Sex-Biased Tests	E	SR-M CD-M TL-L
VIII.F.2.	Measuring Androgyny	E	SR-H CD-M TL-M
IX.A.1.	Equality in Athletics	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
IX.B.1.	Impact of Policy Change	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
IX.C.1.	Limitations of Full-Time Requirements	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
IX.D.1.	Institutional Hiring Practices	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
IX.D.2.	The New College President	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
IX.D.3.	Institutional Benefits: Facilitators or Inhibitors?	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
IX.E.1.	Sex Discrimination and the Law	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
IX.F.1.	Rewards for Ending Sex Bias	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
IX.G.1.	Catalogs as Influencers	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.A.1.	Why Change? (Videotape)	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-L
X.A.2.	Your Decision-Making Style	E	SR-L CD-M TL-L
X.A.3.	Group Roles	E	SR-M CD-L TL-M
X.A.4.	Looking at Change	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
X.B.1.	It's What You Know . . .	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M

Number	Strategy	Parents and/or Educators	Awareness Level
X.B.2.	It's Who You Know . . .	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
X.C.1.	Sources of Power	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.C.2.	Creating Support for Change	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.D.1.	Force-Field Analysis	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.D.2.	Reducing Resistance	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.D.3.	Assertiveness	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
X.D.4.	Situational Assertiveness	P/E	SR-L CD-L TL-H
X.E.1.	Range of Change Strategies	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.E.2.	Commitment to Change	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.F.1.	How to Be a Process Helper	E	SR-L CD-L TL-M
X.F.2.	Change Process: Small Is Beautiful	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M
X.F.3.	Creating an Implementation Plan	E	SR-M CD-M TL-M

Goal I

PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each.

   1. Career Lifeline

   2. Career Autobiography

B. Distinguish common career patterns of females and males.

   1. Career Patterns

   2. Emerging Career Patterns

   3. "Women: Choices and Changes" (videotape)

   4. "Men: Choices and Changes" (videotape)

C. Identify factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.

   1. Collective Collage: Conceptualizing Career-Related Sex Roles

   2. Role Identification

   3. Male/Female Career Patterns

   4. For Singles Only?

   5. Introductions: Career Influencers

D. Distinguish a "career" from "occupation" and "job" and the implications this has for the process of expanding career options.

   1. Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style

"Career Lifeline"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

A. Objective: Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Workshop leader may wish to refer to "Goal III" for other relevant activities.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Use 8 x 14 or larger paper, felt-tip pen, ball-point, or magic marker. Draw a horizontal line across the middle of the page (it can be shaped to show "ups and downs"). On one end mark "B.C." (begin career) and on the other end mark "E.C." (end career). Put an "X" on the continuum where you are now.

c. Using symbols, stick figures or other pictures, indicate factors which have influenced your career. (Include persons, places, events, decisions.) Place the positive factors above the line, negative factors below the line, neutral on the line. If your maleness or femaleness has been a factor, circle the factor in a different color. Use the following symbols to indicate decisions:

- = worst decision
+ = best decision
! = when the greatest risk was taken
x = obstacle which kept you from doing something you wanted to do
? = critical decision coming up

Project into the future your goals, hopes, and aspirations and place symbols on the career lifeline at appropriate points.

d. When each person has finished, break into groups of three or four to process the activity by sharing the meaning of each symbol. Identify significant others, adding more symbols during processing, if appropriate. With exclamation point (!) indicate any surprises or "aha's." (Share only what is comfortable to share.)

e. Questions for the participants to discuss:

1) What part has your occupation played in choosing your other life-style considerations (friends, vacation time, amount of money earned, clothes you wear, etc.)?

2) How much of your career was planned vs. how much just happened?

3) What did you learn for/about yourself from doing your career lifeline (consistency/inconsistency in personal/professional growth, etc.)?

4) What part did your race, ethnicity or economic class play in your career choices?

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper 8 x 14 or larger, pencil, felt-tip pen, or marker

Outcome Criteria:

After completing lifeline, participants will share with others and list five new insights which the strategy provided.

"Career Autobiography"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

A. Objective: Identify the various stages of career development and the developmental tasks associated with each.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to the workshop, ask participants to prepare career autobiography. The focus of a career autobiography should be a brief account of one's career development with special emphasis on not only jobs held but events, people, places, etc., which are relevant to one's career development. One's own view of personal life stages may also form a framework for the autobiography.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader or resource person gives a 15-minute lecture on the Career Development Curriculum (CDC) and career development patterns and allows time for questions.

c. Have participants form small groups to discuss the career autobiography they prepared prior to the session and also their own lifelines (see I.A.1., "Career Lifeline") in terms of the career development (CDC) models and career development patterns. Have each participant examine her/his autobiography and lifeline in terms of the tasks the lecture covered.

Possible discussion questions include:

1) When did you complete these tasks? Are they ever completed?

2) Can you find a place in your lifeline which was taken up significantly by one or more of these tasks?

3) Does your life fit the stages defined by Havighurst, Sheehy, Levinson, or Gould?

4) What part did your race or economic class play in these tasks?

d. Summarize in large group. Ask for volunteers to share responses to the questions posed above.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes plus outside preparation time for career autobiography.

Resources Needed:

Materials: Career autobiographies prepared by participants prior to workshop

Handout: "The Career Development Curriculum Career Management Tasks"

Attached article: "A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement," Hansen and Tennyson (1975)

References: Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens, & Antholz (1975); Walz, Smith, & Benjamin (1974); Sheehy (1974); Levinson (1976, 1978); Havighurst (1974); Gould (1975)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will look at their career autobiography and/or lifeline in terms of career development tasks. Participants will list their appropriate career development tasks as outlined in the CDC model.

THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT CURRICULUM CAREER MANAGEMENT TASKS

*I. Career Management Tasks of the Primary Years

1. Awareness of self
2. Acquiring a sense of control over one's life
3. Identification with workers
4. Acquiring knowledge about workers
5. Ability to present one's self objectively
6. Acquiring interpersonal skills
7. Acquiring respect for other people and the work they do

*II. Career Management Tasks of the Intermediate Years

1. Developing a positive self-concept
2. Acquiring the discipline of work
3. Identification with the concept of work as a valued institution
4. Increasing knowledge about workers
5. Increasing interpersonal skills
6. Increasing ability to present one's self objectively
7. Valuing human dignity

*III. Career Management Tasks of the Junior High Years

1. Clarification of the self-concept
2. Assumption of responsibility for career planning
3. Formulation of tentative career goals
4. Acquiring knowledge of occupations, work settings, and life styles
5. Acquiring knowledge of educational and vocational resources
6. Awareness of decision-making processes
7. Acquiring a sense of independence

*IV. Career Management Tasks of the Senior High Years

1. Reality testing of a self-concept
2. Awareness of preferred life styles
3. Reformulation of tentative career goals
4. Increasing knowledge of and experience in occupations and work settings
5. Acquiring knowledge of educational and vocational patterns
6. Clarification of the decision-making process as related to self
7. Commitment with tentativeness within a changing world

V. Career Management Tasks of the Post-High Years

1. Reassessing and clarifying self
2. Exploration of preferred occupational and life style alternatives
3. Acquiring information-seeking and processing skills
4. Developing competency and interpersonal skills to relate to work organizations
5. Making a tentative commitment to the next stage
6. Acquiring responsible independence and the skills to manage change in self and society
7. Creative application of management skills to life roles

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*W.W. Tennyson, L. Sunny Hansen, M.S. Klaurens, and M.B. Antholz, Educating for Career Development (St. Paul, Minnesota: State Department of Education, 1975).

A CAREER MANAGEMENT MODEL FOR COUNSELOR INVOLVEMENT[1]

by Lorraine Sundal Hansen and W. Wesley Tennyson[2]

The counseling and guidance process has always been thought of as a process of helping individuals examine their life experiences, with the goal that they might know themselves and their environment better and act on that knowledge more purposefully and creatively. Developmental career guidance has increasingly been capturing the attention of counseling personnel in a variety of settings. The gradual emergence of comprehensive, systematic career guidance programs in schools, colleges, and agencies offers counselors an excellent opportunity to advance beyond the reflective, clinical posture of the past and take on the role of an active agent in helping individuals become conscious "career managers" in resolving the management tasks of their careers.

The concomitant movement today called career education has muddied the waters a bit, because parts of it have ignored the actual or potential contributions of counseling and career development to career education programs. If career guidance is to move beyond the limited approaches of the past, and if career education is to become more than the curriculum fad of the 1970s, ways need to be found to incorporate the salient principles of career development into an integrated program that focuses on the self-development of individuals and the tasks facing them as they move through various stages of career over the life span. We propose that career development offers the most viable integrating base and unifying concept for career guidance and career education and for the work of counseling personnel.

For a variety of reasons, career guidance and career counseling have not been a priority either in most practitioner settings or in counselor education. Today the continuing unmet career needs of youth and adults are beginning to be recognized, resulting in a revitalization of the career motif and the creation--in schools, agencies, and colleges--of a plethora of discrete models and strategies for career guidance and career education, often unconnected to each other and seldom tied to comprehensive objectives or related to human career needs. Career development as an integrating construct can help educators and counseling personnel in educational and community institutions to unify their efforts to facilitate actively the individual's management of his or her career.

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[1] From: Hansen, L.S., and Tennyson, W.W. A career management model for counselor involvement. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1975, 53, 638-645. Copyright © 1975, American Personnel and Guidance Association. Reprinted with permission.

[2] Lorraine Sundal Hansen and W. Wesley Tennyson are Professors of Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis. Mary Klaurens, along with the authors, guided the development of the CDC model described in the article.

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Within this framework, this article has three purposes. First, we present, through a philosophic spectrum, a perspective of where society is today in career guidance, career development, and career education. Second, we describe and illustrate a content/process conceptualization for a kindergarten through post-high-school career development program, which can be adapted to adult, midlife, and preretirement career stages (i.e., life span career management). Third, we suggest ways in which such a framework has been and can be used by counseling personnel and educators in career guidance and career education programs.

CURRENT PERSPECTIVES

It was in the late sixties that career again became a prominent theme in counseling and education and caused counseling personnel to begin to look at their practices critically. That decade has been described as a time of

> awakening group consciousness, of indignation and outrage fed by a spreading realization of the pervasiveness of social and economic inequality and deprivation; of insurgency among Blacks, Chicanos, and native Americans; of sharp challenges by women liberationists, youth countercultures, conservationists, and consumer protection groups; of the championing of the values of the new individualism and "Consciousness III"; of the erosion of popular trust in major institutions--business firms, organized labor, Congress, the executive branch of federal government, the military, the courts, the press, the schools . . . of breathtaking social, economic, and technological change; and of the outward thrust of a new hedonism, aptly characterized by Martha Wolfenstein as the "fun morality." (Borow, 1974, p. 4)

The growing search for a new individualism and self-betterment suggests that "today, more than ever, human experience is essentially a process of choosing and deciding among possible stimuli and courses of action" (Kroll et al., 1970, p. 2). With increasing self-awareness, individuals have become more insistent on choosing--even creating--the goals and means they consider to be of value to themselves and to society. In order that they might manage the complexities of their modern-day environment, it seems essential that individuals acquire the skills for choosing, whether the choice relates to partner, community, family, or work, the latter being one of the significant ways in which individuals interact with that environment.

Obstacles to Career Management

Today's world presents obstacles that hinder individuals from developing and expressing their talents in their own unique ways. At each stage of life a person is confronted by societal conditions and problems that create personal dilemmas and thus affect the person's continuing development and ability to manage a career.

Among these problems are the changing meanings of work--thoughtful challenges of the traditional work ethic, midlife career changes, and concerted efforts to achieve balance among multiple life roles. A tight labor market creates limits on occupational opportunities, suggesting the need for counseling with regard to alternative occupations. There is the walling off of the employment-bound from the college-bound and of the school from the community in ways that limit the development of reality-based curricular and counseling experiences. An information deficit is created because of an open, fast-changing society in which it is difficult for one to know the range of options available or the means to achieve them. Finally, there are the special needs of bypassed populations, especially women, the handicapped, and minorities, who have been outside of the opportunity structure, who lack the sense of agency or positive self-concept that will allow their careers to develop, and who need to know the many life style options available to them.

Conceptions of Career Education

Career education is one response to a modern world in which purposeful choosing is imperative if change is to be managed in ways that facilitate personal development. But philosophies of career education vary greatly in their focus, some almost ignoring the counseling/career development emphasis, others making it the core of their approaches. These models may be classified according to whether the theorist chooses to focus on (a) work or the individual, (b) content or process, (c) work roles or multiple roles, and (d) training for employability or educating for life. They may even be grouped according to how work itself is defined, that is, whether it is limited to paid endeavors or expanded to include all significant goal-directed activity. Each of these classifications is reflected on the following continuum, an ordering of function from very narrow to extremely broad points of view. These are not discrete categories but rather overlapping ones, with major points of emphasis in each position on either job, work, self, or life.

Perhaps the most narrow conception is one that equates career education with occupational training. Those who take this position speak with enthusiasm about developing employability skills. What is emphasized is content necessary to match the person to the *job*, and career education is seen as a segmented program within the curriculum.

Next on the continuum is a conception that puts *work* as the central focus, stressing the need to give attention to occupational orientation and preparation. Emphasis is again on content, but in this case exploration of occupational clusters is added to skill training. Typically those who hold this point of view define work as the activities engaged in for immediate income and production. Career is defined as the sum total of an individual's work experience. Thus career is external to the individual, and career education is that part of the total educational program dealing specifically with education for work. This is an extremely popular conception, favored by those who want to delimit the concept in a definitive way.

Still further along the continuum is the point of view that *self* is the primary focus of career education. Proponents of this philosophy suggest that work, whether paid or volunteer, provides a major way in which people interact with the environment and that exploration in work and community is a useful way to help individuals clarify their values and needs in fashioning a meaningful life. Career is defined as a process internal to the person--a "time extended working out of a purposeful life pattern through work undertaken by the individual" (AVA/NVGA, 1973). Career education activities, emphasizing inductive and experience-based approaches to learning, are implemented at all levels and in various settings in systematic programs designed to promote career development. A focus on process expands the range and increases the effectiveness of an individual's perceptions of self, alternatives, and ways of interacting with the environment.

Finally, there is the position of those who see career education as a way of looking at total education, as education for *life* and living. They envision a major restructuring of curriculum and programs, advocating a complete reform of educational institutions. For those holding this point of view, career is synonymous with life, and all education is or should be career education.

This analysis of the several positions and what they imply is important in helping counseling personnel clarify how they can best relate to career education programs or, more significantly, how--by employing their particular skills--they might help to shape better conceptual, operational, or research programs. Obviously, the third and fourth positions on the continuum are most compatible with a counseling and guidance philosophy that promotes self-development.

CAREER MANAGEMENT CONCEPTUAL MODEL: THE CDC

For counseling personnel at all levels to have an impact on career education programs, they need to examine their own functioning and become active agents in helping other staff plan, implement, and evaluate program goals, strategies, and outcomes. Their efforts are needed to assure inclusion of guidance philosophy and content in career education. A career management conceptual model is suggested as a framework for the career guidance program and counselor interventions in career education. It is particularly pertinent to settings in which there is opportunity for systematic curricular or programmatic activities.

The Minnesota Career Development Curriculum (CDC), under development over the past five years by a team of faculty and graduate students at the University of Minnesota (Tennyson et al., in press), is presented here because, unlike many career education models, it (a) builds on career development theory and developmental psychology as its rationale, (b) provides a conceptualization based on the changing nature of individuals and the environment, (c) systematically attends to both content and process, and (d) offers a framework for practice and research and useful direction for counselor intervention in emerging programs. We present here a brief description of the career development principles undergirding the model, the career management tasks that form its core, and the process of model development. While it is presently a kindergarten through post-high program approximating the third position on the continuum, the intent is eventually to provide a theoretical description of total life span career development.

Construction of the CDC proceeded in an orderly sequential pattern, moving through descending abstractions from global statements of the mature, competent person to intermediate statements that define life management tasks or competencies and finally to general program objectives that can be translated into specific observable behaviors and learning activities. The procedure consisted of four major steps.

Step 1: Stating the Value Rationale Undergirding the Program

The first step in formulating a career guidance program is to identify the value premises underlying the program. The rationale consists of a clear statement of desirable outcomes for the individual, including assumptions about human nature and the world.

Idealistically, the goal of the Minnesota CDC is to facilitate development of the fully functioning and effective human being. The educational aim is to develop self-aware, flexible persons who can realize their potentials and acquire the competencies needed to work out relationships between themselves and a complex, changing society.

The CDC team extracted from the literature the following familiar career development principles considered essential to a self-based program. First, career development is a lifelong process of self-development, work being viewed as a vehicle for self-clarification. Second, career development includes the opportunity to examine life roles, occupations, and life styles. Third, the process of life span career development and decision making is emphasized more than the choice itself. Fourth, management of one's career, the power to direct one's future, the ability to maximize control over one's life is a major tenet. Fifth, the concept of multipotentiality--that each person has the potential for success and satisfaction in a number of occupations--frees individuals from the fear of making wrong choices and increases their available options. Sixth, commitment with tentativeness is a concept that is integral to a model based on changing individuals and society and that recognizes the importance of chance factors in career decisions.

With these career development principles in mind, the CDC team defined *career development* as part of human development: the lifelong process of self-development within the context of work, paid and volunteer. They *saw career education* as the *teaching, counseling,* and *community* interventions to facilitate that development. The original CDC program goals were refined recently by a staff designing a national career development project involving television films and related guides and manuals (Agency for Instructional Television, 1974). They stated:

> The program will enable individuals to express an increasingly positive self-concept; demonstrate some control over their lives and their life plans; develop objectivity in looking at self in relation to others; demonstrate those personal attitudes and interpersonal skills essential to effectiveness in current and future work; demonstrate respect for others and the work they do; identify and explore a number of self-in-work options; demonstrate a developing concept of work by assuming responsibility; develop skills for processing and acting upon information about self-in-work; recognize and describe the relationship and influences of current experience and decisions to present and later career development; experience interrelatedness among school learnings to problems and activities outside of school. (p. 7)

These goals are based on a number of value assumptions that the CDC staff made explicit. For example, the economic reward obtained from work is not sufficient to define a person's worth. Men and women, given the security of economic stability, work to achieve a sense of personal significance. The individual is considered to be a potentially active agent, able to adapt and restructure his or her environment in constructive and satisfying ways. Psychologically healthy people assume responsibility for their own activities, using the educational system to explore the range of means available and even generating their own alternatives and solutions to problems. Finally, equality of opportunity for all, without regard to race, sex, age, or religion, must become a part of everyone's value system. Less attention should be given to measurement of abilities and more attention to active exploration and development of abilities.

Step 2: Identifying and Providing Conceptual Definitions of the Relevant Management Tasks or Competencies

Ultimate, or global, goals are realized by mastering the management tasks or competencies that are specific to different life stages. Career development stages, like physiological or intellectual development stages, are sequential but are not directly tied to chronological age (Antholz, 1972). Each stage has its characteristic tasks of growing and maturing. The second step in career guidance program formulation is to derive these tasks from theory and research on human development by abstracting from the literature those consistent with the rationale.

Drawing on the work of Piaget, Erikson, Havighurst, and other developmental psychologists, the CDC team defined a set of sequential career management tasks. These tasks connote a developing capacity on the part of the individuals to construct their experience and control their environment. Although the rationale for selection and placement of these tasks appears elsewhere (Tennyson et al., in press), they are presented here for kindergarten through post-high.

Tasks for the primary years are to: (a) acquire awareness of self, (b) gain a sense of control over one's life, (c) identify with workers, (d) acquire knowledge about workers, (e) acquire interpersonal skills,

(f) objectify self before others, and (g) gain respect for other people and the work they do.

Tasks for the intermediate years are to: (a) develop a positive self-concept, (b) acquire the discipline of work, (c) identify with the concept of work as a valued institution, (d) increase knowledge about workers, (e) increase interpersonal skills, (f) increase objectification of self before others, and (g) value human dignity.

Tasks for the junior high years are to: (a) clarify self-concept, (b) assume responsibility for career planning, (c) formulate tentative career goals, (d) acquire knowledge of occupations, work settings, and life styles, (e) acquire knowledge of educational and occupational resources, (f) develop awareness of the decision-making process, and (g) acquire a sense of independence.

Tasks for the senior high years are to: (a) reality test the self-concept, (b) develop awareness of a preferred life style, (c) reformulate tentative career goals, (d) increase knowledge of and experience in occupations and work settings, (e) acquire knowledge of educational and vocational paths, (f) clarify the decision-making process as related to self, and (g) commit oneself with tentativeness within a changing world.

Tasks for the post-high years are to: (a) develop interpersonal skills essential to work, (b) develop information processing skills about self and work, (c) reintegrate the self, (d) acquire a sense of community, (e) commit oneself to the concept of career, (f) acquire the determination to participate in change, and (g) creatively apply management skills to life roles.

Step 3: Writing Program Objectives Stated in General Behavioral Terms

Conceptual statements of management tasks represent general abstractions of desirable behaviors for different periods of development and must be translated into objectives. Behavioral objectives represent a descending abstraction and further specification of the broader concepts, and they define the criteria for mastery of the career management tasks.

The CDC team wrote 90 general instructional objectives and 275 specific enabling objectives in order to give specificity to the career management tasks. Examples of the form of these objectives can be found in a series of field-tested resource guides providing a career development base for career education under such titles as "Life Styles and Work," "Values Identification," "Self-Concept Exploration," "Significant Others," and "The Social Contribution of Work" (Minnesota Department of Education, 1972). The conceptualization also has supported the development of career education programs, media, and materials in schools and colleges in Minnesota and several other states. Most recently it provided the rationale for a national career development project entitled *bread and butterflies* (Agency for Instructional Television, 1974).

Step 4: Stating Operational Definitions and Alternative Delivery Systems for Program Objectives

Instructional objectives are made evaluative by clarifying their meaning in terms of observable overt actions from which one infers desirable change. CDC staff believe that operationalizing program objectives is most appropriately done when a particular delivery system is being developed. Different delivery systems employing the same objectives will produce different behavioral reactions in the individual. In evaluating application of the CDC to *bread and butterflies*, for example, a research team found that the television film produced behavioral outcomes substantially different from those produced by other delivery components of the program.

The kinds of delivery systems or strategies for implementing program objectives will vary from one setting and level to another. It is important, however, that career guidance program planning include strategies or methods closely linked to clearly defined program goals, objectives, and management tasks. Among the strategies for career education delivery defined in the CDC are these: counseling (individual, group, peer); infusing through curriculum (modules, units, courses); exploratory work experiences (paid and volunteer); career information resource centers (career learning centers); multimedia approaches (TV, films, cassettes, simulations); hands-on experiences (integrating academic and vocational); exposure to role models (nontraditional careers and life styles); cross-age teaching (elementary schools, colleges, nursing homes); local in-service training (staff development); placement and follow-up (educational-vocational).

By linking implementation strategies to program goals and objectives, career guidance program planners have a better base for evaluation, which is a vital part of program formulation and decision making.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING PERSONNEL

For Counselors

A self-development/career-management-based approach to career education such as the one just described requires leadership and commitment as well as new skills, roles, and relationships on the part of counseling personnel. If counselors are to take advantage of the opportunity to shape and influence career education programs through career guidance, they need a framework for intervention consistent with their long-established concern for human development. The career development conceptual model presented here provides one example of such a framework. It is not intended to be prescriptive but rather to suggest appropriate management tasks, objectives, and implementation strategies on which counselors could draw. While the model easily could be adapted to agency and adult counseling settings, its use thus far has been primarily in schools, community colleges, and liberal arts colleges.

The use of such a model will enable the counselor to become directly involved in career education program development and evaluation as a resource person for helping identify program goals, strategies, and media. It may also require active counselor participation in team teaching and systems change.

For Counselor Educators

That counselors have had only limited preparation to perform these kinds of functions is well known. Until counselor education programs significantly increase their preservice focus on career development, career education, and career counseling, the counselor will have to obtain knowledge and skills through in-service training.

But there are signs that counselor preparation institutions are beginning to offer more courses and give greater attention to these areas. One major action has been the recent creation of the ACES Commission on Counselor Preparation for Career Development. Some institutions are providing preservice students with more career counseling and career guidance program experience in their practicum and internship settings. A number of counselor educators have been involved in developing conceptual models, program materials, leadership institutes, and in-service workshops. Some have worked closely with teacher educators in infusing career development concepts and methods into teacher preparation. Still others have created programs to prepare career development specialists.

For counseling personnel to become the conscious managers of their own careers and help their clients do the same, both will need to engage in career self-assessment and begin viewing career development/career education as a broader concept of self-development and career task management, which is at the core of both client and counselor functioning. But if they are to become creative managers and decision-makers in their own work settings, counseling personnel will need to rethink their roles, become actively involved, acquire and use program development skills, and accept new delivery systems.

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NEW MYTHS: COUNSELORS BE WARY

Advice from John A. Sessions
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If career-oriented education is to be successful, guidance and counseling obviously must play a major part in the effort. But unless the guidance and counseling is realistic and informed, it can do more harm than good. There are a number of new myths of which counselors should be wary.

Myth # 1: *Somewhere out there in the world there is a perfect job for everyone, 100 percent satisfying, 0 percent frustrating.* If there were such a job, the counselor would no doubt rush out to apply for it. Students need to understand that no job is all fun, that all jobs have their good and their bad aspects. To give students other expectations is to prepare them for a lifetime of disappointment.

Myth # 2: *Every job carries with it a predetermined life style.* Wallace Stevens, the late vice president of the Hartford Insurance Company and one of the most distinguished poets of his generation, had apparently never heard of this principle. Neither has Eric Hoffer, the longshoreman/social critic. And neither had my carpenter grandfather, who in a crisis could have substituted for the conductor in most of the better-known Wagner operas. It is a mistake to job-type a student because the student likes baseball. That student might just grow up to be another such novelist as James T. Farrell!

Myth # 3: *Students should be encouraged to make career decisions as early as possible.* As soon as students' talents and probable life styles can be identified, this myth suggests, they should zero in on their life work. Quite to the contrary, guidance and counseling should help them avoid becoming locked into decisions that constitute the point of no return, the line beyond which one must pay another fare to get back on the subway of life.

Myth # 4: *Jobs can be arranged on "career ladders." You start at the bottom rung and work your way up to the top.* This is the modern version of the Horatio Alger rags-to-riches myth. I recently saw a career education plan that suggested, as a typical career education ladder, one in the health professions reaching from ward orderly to chief surgeon. It is doubtful that anyone has ever climbed that particular career ladder. Career ladders have become confused with their opposite: the pecking order.

Guidance and counseling personnel must never lose sight of the fact that the essential function of education is to broaden opportunities for the student whose life might otherwise be severely restricted. Education that narrows the student's options in life is a contradiction in terms, and counselors must never stop reminding both students and educators of this fact.

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"Career Patterns"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

B. Objective: Distinguish common career patterns of females and males.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Present a short (15-minute) overview on what is known about career patterns of men and women. A ditto providing explanation and examples (using information from the appendixed and referenced articles) may be helpful to participants.

c. Form small groups and have participants complete "Career Patterns: A Worksheet," listing at least three career patterns. In listing career patterns participants may wish to list their own and patterns of men and women they know. Ask participants to pay careful attention to factors of age, race, economic/social backgrounds, ethnicity, and cultural heritage. Choose one group member to serve as recorder to give a summary of the group discussion.

d. Summarize small-group activity and ask group to place worksheets in prominent place for viewing by all participants.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Magic markers, masking tape
Handout: "Career Patterns: A Worksheet"

References: Howe (1975); Hansen & Rapoza (1978); Rand & Miller (1978); Ferman (1978); Levitt (1978); Super (1978)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will share one new awareness and complete the career patterns worksheet.

CAREER PATTERNS: A WORKSHEET

Male/Female	Career Pattern	Life Style Considerations

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"Emerging Career Patterns"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

B. Objective: Distinguish common career patterns of females and males.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

People often have tended to think of job choices as apart from family choices. Increasingly society is defining career more broadly to include the choices women and men make in both work and family. Although for many years the traditional nuclear family (with mother at home, caring for children, father at work) was the predominant pattern, today it is recognized that there are many different career patterns from the traditional to the role reversal in which the woman is the breadwinner and the man is at home. Some of these patterns are listed on the handout entitled "Emerging Career Patterns."

Invite people in the community to be part of a panel on "Career Patterns." While all patterns may not be available, include a sufficient variety so that participants are exposed to the advantages and disadvantages of each. Where there are partners in a pattern (e.g., dual-career family), try to have both on the panel. Be sure that the panel includes multiethnic representation as well as singles, marrieds, etc.

If there is not time to plan a panel, leader can present an overhead projection of the emerging career patterns with explanations of each and invite participants to indicate whether they know people who are living these patterns and to comment on them.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have members generate questions including some or all of these:

1) How did you choose the career pattern you are in?
2) What are some of the advantages of your particular pattern?
3) What are some of the disadvantages?
4) If you had your life to live over, would you choose the same pattern?
5) Who were the major influencers of your decisions?
6) What kinds of reactions, positive or negative, do/did you experience from friends, family, or co-workers regarding this pattern?
7) What part did your race, economic class, age, or physical disability play in your career pattern?

c. Summarize.

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Minimum Time Required: 1 hour or more

Resources Needed:

Community resource persons from a variety of career patterns
Handout: "Emerging Career Patterns"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least five career patterns and the major advantage and disadvantage of each.

EMERGING CAREER PATTERNS[1]

-- TRADITIONAL FAMILY - Two parents with children, mother at home, father works

-- DUAL CAREER OR EMPLOYED - Two partners work for pay outside home, may or may not have children

-- SINGLE CAREER - Person remains single, employed over time; no children

-- EQUAL PARTNERSHIPS - Two partners work for pay outside home; consciously share household tasks and childrearing

-- SINGLE PARENT - Single person combines work and childrearing, sometimes by crisis, sometimes by choice

-- SINGLE ADOPTIVE PARENT - Single employed person adopts child or children

-- MARRIED NONPARENTS - May be dual-employed or traditional, but have no children

-- SHARED POSITION - Two persons share one paid job equally or in proportion (1/3, 2/3); may be couples or unrelated

-- SHARED CAREER - One person's occupation defines role for the other; also called absorptive career (e.g., corporate executive, minister, college president)

-- ROLE-REVERSAL PATTERN - Husband is home, doing the household tasks; wife is employed

-- VOLUNTEER CAREER - Continuous involvement in non-paid work over time; has been female pattern; high commitment

-- NONWORK PATTERN - Persons who cannot obtain work or choose not to work

-- ALTERNATIVE ECONOMIC LIFE STYLE - Two or more persons who devise alternative patterns such as communes, extended family, where new types of personal and economic relationships are developed

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[1] L. Sunny Hansen, 1977.

P/E SR-L
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I.B.3.

"Women: Choices and Changes" (Videotape)

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

B. Objective: Distinguish common career patterns of females and males.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

For more intensive discussion, and for suggestions for using the videotape, see Video Viewers' Guide No. 3: Women: Choices and Changes.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape, "Women: Choices and Changes."

c. The tape focuses on the career development and career patterns of women and the messages that women receive about appropriate career decisions. The developmental themes are: female socialization and expectations, occupational dreams and realities, male/female relationships, women's view of self and other women, and the reality and effects of change. In small groups of five to six persons, discuss the messages in the videotape. These questions may be used:

1) What kinds of careers were considered OK for the women in the tape? For the women in the group?

2) Were the messages that women in the group received about what was OK for them different from the messages that men received?

3) Did any of the women in the group want to be something different from what they are now? What or who prevented their actualizing their dreams?

4) Did any of the women in the group become something that they were advised and encouraged not to do? What kinds of obstacles did they have to overcome in order to fulfill their goals?

5) Are any of the women in the group working outside the home by necessity rather than choice?

6) Do the women in the group view other women as competitors or as supports? What types of groups did they belong to?

7) Have they undergone any significant changes in life style or career in the past five years? Has that change affected the significant other people in their lives? If so, in what ways?

8) What kinds of decisions about your future do you expect to make?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed: Videotape No. 3, "Women: Choices and Changes"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 3: Women: Choices and Changes

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will share actively in the discussion about the main messages in the tape and the corresponding effects of socialization upon their or their loved ones' lives.

"Men: Choices and Changes" (Videotape)

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

B. Objective: Distinguish common career patterns of females and males.

4. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Show the half-hour color videotape "Men: Choices and Changes."

c. Six different segments of the videotape address various issues related to men's socialization. In small groups, discuss the most important messages from the tape. Some suggested questions for discussion are listed below, and a more lengthy list of discussion questions is available in Video Viewers' Guide No. 2: Men: Choices and Changes.

1) Give some examples of messages which males receive regarding acceptable and unacceptable kinds of behaviors, attitudes, and values for them to have.

2) What are the advantages and disadvantages of the traditional family model with the man alone as breadwinner?

3) What are some advantages and disadvantages of being a man in this culture?

4) What are some of the advantages and disadvantages for men who pursue atypical kinds of work?

5) What are some of the implications of two-career families?

6) Discuss some of the reasons for and implications of men not openly expressing their feelings and emotions.

7) Are there any sex differences which we want to cherish and keep intact?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 2, "Men: Choices and Changes"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 2: Men: Choices and Changes

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write at least four of the important messages they received from the tape.

"Collective Collage: Conceptualizing Career-Related Sex Roles"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

C. Objective: Identify factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity provides an opportunity for participants to address creatively a variety of issues pertaining to career-related sex-role stereotyping. Be sure to collect a number of magazines that will provide adequate material with which to make collages.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the activity.

b. Divide participants into groups of four and ask them to construct a collage or mural which represents the individual group's present conception of male and female career roles. Pictures and symbols rather than words should be used. Give the collage a name and place the name in the middle of it.

Before putting anything on paper, groups may want to discuss male-female career socialization and plan what should be in the collage. The collage might answer such questions as:

1) What is your team's concept of male and female career roles?
2) Who influences career choices?
3) Who is involved in implementing them?
4) How is occupation related to life style?
5) What are the differences in male and female career patterns?
6) Are the occupations depicted traditional, nontraditional, or both?
7) What is your team's concept of minority male and female career roles?

Distribute magazines, newspapers, and other materials to the group.

c. Have one person from each group interpret the group's collage to the entire audience.

d. Processing questions:

1) Who took the leadership in the groups?
2) What facilitated the group's reaching a decision?
3) What inhibited the group from making a decision?
4) What kinds of norms were operating in the group?
5) What arguments prevailed in the final decision?
6) What values were operating in the decision-making process?

7) Are there any superordinate goals that should prevail in making this kind of decision?

e. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

The collages can be presented to the workshop group and a prize can be offered for the best one presented. Presenters are to persuade the other workshop participants that their group's collage should be selected as most representative. An empty chair will be available for anyone from their group who wants to add to the case. Members can also send written messages to their representative, but they cannot communicate in other ways.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes for the collage
30 minutes for processing

Resources Needed:

Materials: Magazines, newspapers, scissors, glue, magic markers, newsprint

Outcome Criterion:

Each participant will take part in creation and discussion of the collage and relate it to male/female career options.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

I.C.2.

"Role Identification"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

C. Objective: Identify factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity provides participants with an opportunity to identify current roles they play, the relation of these roles to career development, and the value which they assign to these roles.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants separate into groups of four or five. Hand out five 3 x 5 cards to each group member. Ask each participant to place one role they currently play on each card. (Examples might be teacher, counselor, parent, student, friend, etc.) Then ask group members to rank-order the roles, most important on the bottom (No. 5), least important on top (No. 1). Have one member at a time discard one role and share what the role means, its value to them, its relation to career development, how they feel without it, and how the role might or might not be different if they were of the other sex. Members should continue to discard roles until the last or most important is retained.

When the last role has been saved, ask members to share why they kept it. Have each group member discard the last role and comment on how it feels to be without that role. Then ask the members to share with the group the feeling of being without all five roles. Ask them to think about roles they would like to assume and then reconstruct five roles. (They may be the same, similar, or quite different.)

Direct members to pay close attention to how roles might be different if they were the other sex, or a different race or economic class, or had a different career. They might also discuss whether changing sex roles have had an impact on roles they currently hold or want to hold.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 - 1 1/2 hours.

Resources Needed:

Materials: 3 x 5 cards; markers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will share five roles and relate these roles to career development and sex-role socialization.

"Male/Female Career Patterns"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

C. Objective: Identify factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Exercise could be scheduled prior to lunch to facilitate ongoing discussion during the break.

"The Changing Status of American Women" (attached article) should be assigned prior to session with instructions to prepare questions for discussion.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pool questions participants have prepared and choose, by consensus, those that the group wants to discuss. Be sure to bring up a question of what differences exist among women of differing racial and economic classes.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "The Changing Status of American Women" (Van Dusen and Sheldon, 1976)
"Will Jill Make Department Chairman?" (Kievit, 1974)

Reference: Howe (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five major changes in the educational, occupational, and family status of American women.

THE CHANGING STATUS OF AMERICAN WOMEN: A LIFE CYCLE PERSPECTIVE[*]

by Roxann A. Van Dusen, Social Science Research Council, Washington, D.C.; and Eleanor Bernert Sheldon, Social Science Research Council, New York, New York

The "life cycle," a familiar concept to the public and to the media, has recently been receiving substantial attention from social scientists (Riley, Johnson, & Foner, 1972). The life cycle (or "life course") is a way of conceptualizing the aging process: a sequence of statuses and roles, expectations and relationships, constituting, in the broadest meaning of the word, an individual's "career." While the life cycle is universal, it is also infinitely varied. It is shaped by the variety of roles and opportunities available to an individual, as well as by the resources that individual can marshal at various stages of his or her "career."

In the past decade or so, sociologists and other social scientists have borrowed from demographers the concepts and techniques of cohort analysis for studying the process of social change. To state it simply: Social change has been viewed as the succession of cohorts through various stages of the life cycle. This cohort-analytic perspective highlights three important components of social change: (a) change associated with the aging process; (b) change associated with changes in the "external" environment; and (c) change associated with the replacement of one group of people (usually the succession of age groups) by the next.

Consider, first, the aging process: An individual's life is patterned by a variety of role sequences, probably the most important of which is the family life cycle, but also including sequences of student, career, and community roles. The combination and juxtaposition of various role sequences provide texture to an individual life cycle. Certain roles are traditionally associated with certain ages: student roles with the young; parental roles with the middle years; life alone (whether as a result of divorce, widowhood, or lifelong singleness) with the middle aged and elderly.

Second, the historical times during which an individual matures also affect expectations and behavior: the 1930s Depression, World War II, the Vietnam War--all have an impact on patterns of marriage, fertility, and employment.

Finally, each birth cohort has a unique pattern of experiences as it progresses through the life cycle, experiences that may be seen as the interaction of the aging process and the period during which it occurs. The cohort that grew up and reached maturity during the 1930s bears the mark of

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This article was the APA Invited Address presented by Eleanor Bernert Sheldon at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Chicago, August 1975. Requests for reprints should be sent to Roxann A. Van Dusen, Social Science Research Council, Center for Coordination Research on Social Indicators, 1755 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

the Depression. The baby-boom cohort faces (and will continue to face) sharp competition for education, for jobs, and for a variety of social services--the consequences of belonging to a group that is larger than both the group it follows and the one that will follow it.

The combination of the notion of the life cycle (and subcycles within it) and the notion of cohort succession provides a powerful tool for characterizing and understanding some of the recent changes in the roles and status of American women. Some of these changes have resulted from changes in the perception of appropriate role sequences for women; some are the result of the interaction of social, political, and economic events of the 1960s and 1970s; and some of the changes (and certainly the speed of the changes) may be attributed to the fact that the cohort that reached maturity in the past few years is not an ordinary cohort but rather the baby-boom generation.

Let us examine, briefly, some of these changes. It was noted at the outset that the *family* life cycle constitutes perhaps the most important subcurrent of an individual's life cycle. It is certainly the most important subcycle if that individual happens to be a woman. In fact, the tendency until recently has been to equate the family life cycle with the female life cycle. After all, most women marry at some point in their life, and most married women have children. In 1974, for instance, 95% of all women 35 and older had been married at least once, and all but about 10% of them had had at least one child (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974d, 1975a). Most women's lives have been regulated by the family life cycle, their "career" choices to one extent or another circumscribed by the responsibilities attending their family roles--the bearing and rearing of children.

From this presumed identity of female and family life cycles, there developed well-defined notions of what activities and roles are appropriate for women of different ages, corresponding to different stages of the family life cycle. These expectations were, to some extent, suspended for women who did not fit the mold: the 5% or 10% who never married, and the ever-increasing number of divorced, separated, and widowed women. Thus there developed the notion that there are two categories of women: those who are married and those with careers.

In fact, of course, such a dichotomy never existed. In 1950, one quarter of all married women who were living with their husbands were in the labor force, and more than one quarter of all women in intact marriages who had school-age children were employed: more than 10% of married women with husband present and preschool children were in the labor force. And the number of women who combine career and family roles has risen steadily since then. Nevertheless, it has only been in the last decade or so that notions about what activities and roles are appropriate for women at each stage of the family/female life cycle have become somewhat less rigid. Slowly, social definitions of women's roles are catching up with reality.

Many have seen this trend as the increasing overlap and similarity of men's and women's life cycles. An alternative is to view this trend as the decreasing salience of marriage and the family in the life choices of women.

In a recent article, Presser (1973) examined some of the consequences for women and for the family of perfect fertility control. Many of the changes she envisioned are becoming evident in the trends to be highlighted in this article: continuing education for women, an orientation toward lifelong careers, smaller families, and child-free marriages. This is not to suggest that all of these changes may be directly attributed to greater contraceptive efficiency. But what it does suggest is that the distinction (in terms of roles and expectations) between child-free women and those with children (whether by choice or through contraceptive failure) is gradually disappearing. Or, to phrase it differently, the family life cycle is becoming but one of a number of subcurrents in the lives of American women.

In documenting some of the facets of this general trend, it is important not only to examine changes in several key aspects of women's (and men's) lives--education, marriage and the establishment of a separate household, childbearing, and labor force participation--but also to examine these changes with a view to the variable effects on different age groups at different stages in the life cycle.

EDUCATION

It is appropriate to begin the discussion of changes in the status of American women with some information on changes in their educational attainment. Education has traditionally been regarded as an early stage of the life cycle--a stage that is completed before a career (be it job, marriage, family, or whatever) is launched. Furthermore, the educational system plays a major role in influencing the goals and expectations of individuals; it also is a major source of the contacts and training that will enable the individual to pursue those goals. Thus, the education system plays both a formal and an informal role in channeling individuals into certain lifework and life styles.

That there has been a steady rise in the educational attainment of the U.S. population over the past 35 years is well known: the proportion of Americans between the ages of 25 and 34 with at least 4 years of high school has risen from 35% in 1940 to 80% in 1974. The percentage of female high school graduates 20 and 21 years old who have completed at least some college has risen from 24% in 1940 to 46% in 1974; the comparable figures for men are 30% in 1940 and 49% in 1974 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974a).

Yet important differences exist between men and women both in the level of educational attainment of each group and in the types of educational training each pursues. For instance, though women are somewhat more likely to finish high school than are men, women are less likely to continue on to college. And if they do go on to college, women are less likely to complete all 4 years. In 1974, 47% of all white women between 25 and 34 years old had completed high school but had no college training, and an additional 33% had completed some college. The comparable figures for white males are 38% with only a high school degree, and 44% with at least some college (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974a).

There are several stereotypic explanations for these sex differences in educational attainment. First, it is argued, a family is more likely to invest in a son's education than in a daughter's in the belief that the son *must* be able to find a job, but the daughter may not have to. Second, even if the daughter intends to work, most jobs open to her do not require a college degree: skills necessary for secretarial, clerical, and operative positions can be learned on the job. And third, so the argument goes, the daughter will undoubtedly get married and have children, and will in any case stop her education at that point.

Indeed, marriage and childbearing have traditionally been considered sufficient reasons for women to terminate their schooling, though the parallel roles for men (husband and father) did not, in general, preclude a man from continuing to be a student as well. In discussing the results of a recent national survey, Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers (Note 1) state:

> The proportion of unmarried young women who report attending school of some kind (61 percent) is twice as high as that of their married age cohort [18-29] (29 percent), but the proportion of unmarried men of this age [who report attending school] (47 percent) is virtually identical to that of married men (48 percent). When asked why they had terminated their formal education when they had, almost half of the married women referred to their marriage; this response was far less common among young married men.

These explanations for sex differences in educational attainment have taken a rather severe beating in the past decade. First, the argument that women need not support themselves: Increasing numbers of women are the sole wage earners for their families or are economically independent. In March 1973, 42% of all women in the labor force were single, widowed, divorced, or separated, and thus (to a greater or lesser extent) economically on their own; another 19% of the female labor force were married to men with less than $7,000 annual income (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975). Increasingly, women must face the likelihood that at some point in their lifetime they will have to support themselves or contribute to the family income.

Second, the argument that women's work does not require extensive training or educational degrees fails on two counts: (a) women are bringing more education to their traditional jobs and thus making that training a requirement of the position (most secretaries, for instance, are now expected to have some college training); and (b) women are beginning to challenge the rigidity with which "women's work" has been defined, and in seeking entrance to "male jobs," they have had to acquire the prerequisite educational background.

And third, the argument that women will give up their schooling for marriage and family: Increasing numbers of women, in examining their prospects for entering or reentering the labor force, are not abandoning their educational careers upon marriage and the advent of children. The composition of the student population of the United States--in terms of both age and sex--is rapidly changing. Between 1970 and 1974, the number of women in college increased by 30%, while the number of men only increased by 12%. Furthermore, although overall graduate school enrollment has dropped 9% since 1969, the proportion of women in graduate school continues to rise. In 1971, women earned 42% of all BAs and 40% of all MAs. Although women constituted only 14% of all PhDs awarded in 1971, that number is likely to rise quickly in the next few years, for the pool of candidates from which they are drawn is growing rapidly (both in actual numbers and compared with men) (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975).

Not only is the proportion of women seeking education beyond the high school diploma fast approaching that of men, women are also beginning to compete with men to gain entry to the high-prestige occupations that were traditionally closed to them. The proportion of women enrolled in professional schools for such fields as law, medicine, architecture, and engineering, although still low, has risen steadily since 1960. For instance, of the total enrollment in law schools, women accounted for 4% in 1960, 12% in 1972, and 19% in 1974. The same trend may be seen in total enrollments in medical schools, in which women represented 6% of the total in 1960, 13% in 1972, and 18% in 1974. The increasing proportion of women in the first-year class of these programs suggests that these trends will continue (McCarthy & Wolfle, 1975; Parrish, 1974).

Finally, evidence exists that fewer women are abandoning their educational plans upon marriage and childbearing, or they are setting aside these plans only temporarily. This trend may be seen in the number of women 25 years and older who are in school. Between 1970 and 1974, for instance, the college enrollment of women between the ages of 25 and 34 rose from 409,000 to 831,000--an increase of 102%. The comparable increase for men between 25 and 34 was 46%: from 940,000 to 1,371,000 in 1974. Of women in college between the ages of 16 and 34, those 25 years and older rose from 14% in 1970 to 21% in 1974 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975c).

During the period 1970-1974, part-time enrollment in college increased 50%, compared with a 10% increase in the number of full-time students. The role that the older college students play in this trend toward part-time continuing education is evident: 63% of the 25-34-year-olds were enrolled on a part-time basis in 1974, compared with only 17% of those in the traditional college cohort (18-24-year-olds) (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975c).

These changes have had two important effects on the lives of American women. First, the young women in the age cohort that traditionally constituted the student population (those under age 25) are facing much less resistance--social and institutional--in their efforts to gain access to the training that is a prerequisite for career mobility. Second, and perhaps more important, those women *not* in the traditional student cohort--those who are older, who are married, or who have children--are no longer deemed to have "missed the boat" by having taken on family roles before completing their schooling. "Student" is no longer synonymous with "pre-adult."

In the following sections, some of the push and pull factors associated with the return of older women to school will be discussed: changes in the marital and childbearing patterns that have made continuing education more easy to arrange and changes in the labor market that have made that education more desirable to acquire--at least for women.

MARRIAGE AND CHILDBEARING

Three of the most remarkable trends in the past two decades have all had a direct effect on the phasing of what was traditionally considered the main portion of a woman's life cycle--namely, marriage and childbearing. Specifically, women are postponing marriage, postponing childbearing within marriage, and reducing their family size expectations.

Take marital patterns, for instance. The median age at first marriage for women has risen from 20.3 in 1950 to 21.1 in 1974. Furthermore, in the age group in which most men and women traditionally marry (20-24), the percentage of women remaining single has risen from 28% in 1960 to 39% in 1974--an increase of one third. In general, while the percentage remaining single is up sharply for persons under 35, it continues to decline for persons 35 and over (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974d). The long-term effect of the trend among the 20-24 cohort to remain single may be a later marriage age, or it may be a growing commitment to lifelong singleness: it is too early to say.

There are many explanations for this dramatic change in marriage patterns in the last 25 years. First, the expansion of educational opportunities for women has provided them with alternatives to their traditional life choices, and they are postponing (sometimes indefinitely) parental roles in favor of occupational careers. Second, there is increasing acceptance of nontraditional living arrangements; couples who might have bowed to social pressure to marry no longer feel compelled to do so. Third, the 1960s saw a dramatic rise in the number of young marriage-age men inducted into the armed forces, and thus made relatively inaccessible to the marriage market. But, in addition to these and other explanations for delayed marriage, demographers have given us one other: *the marriage squeeze.* Since women tend to marry men two or three years older than themselves, the women of the baby boom reached marriage age before the comparably large male marriage cohort. Or, to put it another way, there were not enough men in the appropriate age groups for the marriage-age women. For some women, then, the postponement of marriage may have been involuntary--the demographic fallout of the baby boom (Glick & Parke, 1965; Parke & Glick, 1967).

In part as a consequence of postponed marriage, in part for other reasons, women are postponing childbearing. For instance, 70% of white women married between 1955 and 1959 had their first child in the first 24 months of marriage; 10 years later (i.e., among women married between 1965 and 1969), only 60% had had their first child within 2 years of marriage. The same trend is seen for later-order births as well. It should be noted, however, that in the same 10-year comparison for black women, the trend is reversed (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974c).

Not only are women having their children later, they are also having, and planning to have, fewer children. This phenomenon has given us another term in the popular lexicon on the changing life cycle: *the birth dearth.* Between 1960 and 1974, the percentage of ever-married women between the ages of 15 and 19 who were child free increased by 25% (from 44% to 56%); for ever-married women 20-24, those child free rose by two thirds (from 24% to

41%); and for ever-married women 25-29, the rise was close to 60% (from 13% to 20%)(U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975a). It is interesting to note that this drop in births since 1960 will produce a reverse marriage squeeze in the next five years or so: young men will be locating mates from a *smaller* cohort of women.

In 1974, the birth rate in the United States reached a point lower even than the level reaching during the 1930s Depression: 14.8 per 1,000 population. Not only the birth rate but the fertility expectations of women have dropped dramatically and quickly. In 1955, 38% of women aged 18-24 expected to have four or more children (U.S. Department of Labor, 1973); between 1967 and 1974, the proportion of women in this age group who expected to have four or more children dropped by more than two thirds: from 26% in 1967 to 8% in 1974. At the same time, the number of women anticipating *two* children rose dramatically: from 37% of the women 18-24 in 1967 to 56% in 1974--an increase of 50%. For women in the 25-29 age range, the increase in the number expecting only two children was even more dramatic: from 29% in 1967 to 52% in 1974 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975a).

At the same time that family size expectations are decreasing, there is an increasing proportion of childless women who expect to *remain* childless: in 1974, 11% of childless married women 14-24 and 27% of childless married women 25-29 did not expect to have any children. These figures represent an increase of 23% in just 3 years in wives under 30 who do not plan to have children (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975a).

In short, then, women have been entering the traditional family cycle more slowly, and because of their smaller families, they have been spending less time in that phase of their life.

FEMALE HEADS OF HOUSEHOLDS*

One way to examine some of the changes that have taken place in family living arrangements in the past two decades is to look at changes in female-headed households. Between 1954 and 1969, the number of female heads of families increased by about 40%; this number grew another 22% between 1970 and 1974, so that by 1974 female-headed households represented 10% of all households in the United States, and approximately 15% of all families with children. Much of this change reflects the increase in the number of black female family heads. Since 1960 there has been a 10% increase in the number of white female family heads, and a 35% increase in the number of black female family heads. In 1973, black women represented 28% of all female family heads (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975b).

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* Any woman 14 years old or older may head a family if she is not married and living with her husband. She may or may not live alone, and if she lives with others, they may or may not be related to her. If she lives alone or with nonrelatives, she is called a primary individual. If she lives with others who are related to her by blood, marriage, or adoption, she is the head of a primary family. For a detailed discussion of households headed by women, see Ross and MacIntosh (Note 2).

Female heads of households are younger (on the average) than previously, and more apt to be divorced, separated, or single, rather than widowed. Between 1960 and 1973, the median age of women who headed families declined by about 5 years, from 50.5 in 1960 to 45.1 in 1973, with black female family heads about 9 years younger than their white counterparts (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974b). The shift toward younger, divorced, or separated female family heads (from older, widowed family heads) will no doubt continue as a result of the continuing and rising rate of divorces and separations. In 1973, 37% of female family heads were widowed, 13% unmarried, and 50% divorced or separated. This is in contrast with 1960, when 50% of them were widowed and 36% divorced or separated (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974b).

There are two fundamental reasons for interest in and concern for increases in the number of households headed by women. First, as a group, these households are particularly disadvantaged. Two thirds of all female household heads have less than a high school education. In 1972, more than half of them had incomes below the poverty threshold ($4,254), compared with less than 10% of male heads of households. In 1973, a higher proportion of children under 18 years of age lived in fatherless families than ever before: about 10% of white children and 38% of black children. Nearly one half of all female family heads between the ages of 25 and 44 have three or more children. In short, increasing numbers of children are experiencing the economic disadvantages which attend households headed by women (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974b; U.S. Department of Labor, 1975; Waldman & Whitmore, 1974).

The second major reason for interest in the growth of female-headed households is that increasing numbers of women have experienced or will experience this status at some point in their lives. The shift toward later marriage age, when combined with the ability and inclination of young single women to leave their parent's home and set up their own household, has been a major element in the increase in households of "primary individuals" who are female. The rise in the number of children born to unmarried women, coupled with the tendency for these women to set up their own household rather than move in with relatives, has also contributed to the trend.

But the major factor in the rise in the number of households headed by women is the increasing likelihood that a marriage will end in divorce or separation. The number and rate of divorces increased in 1974 for the 12th straight year. The ratio of divorced people to those in intact marriages has risen from a level of 35 per 1,000 in 1960 to 63 per 1,000 in 1974, with approximately 50% more divorced women than divorced men in 1974--an indication of the greater likelihood that divorced men will remarry. Perhaps the most important element in this trend has been the shift in the age patterns of divorce in recent years. In 1974, the ratio of divorced persons to persons in intact marriages was higher for those under 45 years old (66 per 1,000) than for those 45 years and over (59 per 1,000), representing a reversal of the situation a decade earlier (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974d).

It has been argued that the rise in the number of families headed by women represents not a preference for single-parent families but rather a transitional status which increasing proportions of women will enter (and leave) at some point in their lives (Ross and McIntosh, Note 2). The vast majority of the individuals who are postponing marriage today are likely to marry at some point; a growing proportion of them will experience separation and divorce; and an increasing proportion of those divorced will experience remarriage. Between 1960 and 1969, the rate of remarriage of divorced women rose by almost 11% (from 122.1 per 1,000 divorced women to 135.4). In contrast, the remarriage rate for widows has remained fairly constant: 36.1 per 1,000 widows in 1960 to 39.3 per 1,000 in 1969. Thus, the major group of women who are likely to remain in female-headed households are widows. But, as noted earlier, widows represent a shrinking proportion of the total female household heads (NCHS, 1973).

If, in fact, there has been a decrease in the importance of marital status in predicting or determining the sorts of activities and roles a woman adopts, part of the reason is that marriage is not eternal. More and more women are spending more and more time in roles that lie outside the traditional family life cycle. The length of time after childhood and before marriage is growing, as is the number of women spending time between marriages.

It is not really surprising that the social perception of appropriate female roles is catching up with the reality of post-World-War-II America. It is rather more surprising that it has taken so long to recognize that the "career woman" and the mother may be one and the same person. But then, as Keller (1972) has noted, the working woman is "one of America's best kept secrets."

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION*

The contrast between the female labor force of 1920 and that of the 1970s is striking. In 1920, the typical working woman was single, under 30 years old, and from the "working class." Today, most working women are married; over two thirds of them have childrearing responsibilities in addition to their jobs; they represent the entire socioeconomic spectrum; and more than half of them are 40 or over.

Between 1950 and 1973, overall labor force participation of women rose by one third. Although women who have never married have been and continue to be much more likely to work, the distinction between never married and other categories of women in terms of their labor market activity is rapidly disappearing. While the labor force participation of never-married women rose 13% between 1950 and 1974 (from 50.5% to 57.2%), it rose over 80% for married women who were living with their husbands (from 23.8% to 43.0%).

Since the mid-1960s, the greatest increase in labor force participation of women has been among those in the 25-34 age range--the ages during which women are most intensively involved in childrearing, and the ages at which female labor force participation has traditionally been lowest. Among women 25-34, the proportion in the labor force has risen from 36% in 1960 to 50% in 1973--an increase of close to 40% in 13 years (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975).

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* For a discussion of trends in female labor force participation in the United States in the 20th century, see Oppenheimer (1970). For additional information, see the annual publication of the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President.

Several reasons can be given for the changing composition of the female labor force over the past several decades, some of which have already been highlighted. The rise in the educational attainment of young women in the past several decades has given women access to jobs that were previously inaccessible to them because they lacked the requisite training. Demographic trends have also played a role in encouraging increasing numbers of women to enter the labor force, and to stay there. Because young women have been postponing marriage, and postponing childbearing within marriage, they experience a relatively long period of time after completing high school or college during which they may advance in their careers. And increasingly, women are finding it difficult to give up the economic independence, as well as the challenge, recognition, and satisfaction they derive from their jobs. Over a third of married women with preschool children were in the labor force in 1974, as contrasted with only 12% in 1950.

In a study of female labor market activity using data from the 1960 U.S. Census, Sweet (1973) found that women with more education were more likely to be in the labor force while their children were preschoolers than were those women with less than a high school education. Sweet suggests two reasons for these findings: differences in child-spacing patterns and differences in previous labor market experience. If women with less education are likely to have the second child relatively quickly, they will be pregnant again while the first child is still a preschooler, and thus less interested in returning to the job. And with good reason: The jobs less educated women perform tend to be more hazardous than the jobs open to women with a college education.

Well-educated women are more likely to have worked both before marriage and before childbearing, and for a longer period of time. This fact has two consequences: (a) the family's consumption patterns have become adapted to two incomes, a level of living difficult to abandon; and (b) these women, with their relatively recent work experience, have greater contact with the labor market and knowledge of job opportunities and are more likely to find employment when they want it.

In addition to affecting the number of women in the labor force, demographic trends have also affected the composition of the female labor force, more particularly the shift from a young, unmarried female labor force to a middle-aged, married one. This shift has been explained, in part, by the concept of a *life cycle squeeze* (Gove, Grimm, Motz, & Thompson, 1973; Oppenheimer, 1974). Expenses are particularly high two times during the typical family life cycle: the first occurs soon after the couple is married, when the acquisition of home and other accoutrements of married life usually takes place; the second occurs when children reach adolescence. Both are times when the husband's income alone is not likely to be sufficient to cover these expenses: the first because he is at the beginning of his career at the time that he is beginning his marriage; the second because the time when the costs of maintaining the family are highest (adolescence of children) may not coincide with the time when his income reaches its peak. Oppenheimer (1974) finds that men in occupations where the peak median earnings in 1959 were $7,000 or more were much more likely to have their incomes rise roughly in proportion to increases in the cost of maintaining their families. However, men in occupations with peak median incomes under $7,000 in 1959 were likely to experience peak child-care costs at a time when they were not earning much more, and sometimes less on average, than were younger men with younger and therefore less expensive children. These situations create strong economic pressures for an additional income, and are undoubtedly one reason why young brides continue to work after marriage, and why women in their forties and fifties have entered or reentered the labor market in record numbers in recent years.*

Changes in the U.S. economy in the 20th century have also encouraged women to enter and remain the labor force. The industries and occupations that have expanded most rapidly (particularly during the period after 1940) are those that were the major employers of women. This trend has been characterized as a shift from the goods-producing economy prior to World War II to the service-producing economy of the 1970s (Waldman & Whitmore, 1974). The post-World-War-II baby boom created the need for an expansion of a wide variety of services--educational, medical, governmental, and recreational among them--services in which most women workers were concentrated.

But while the demand for female labor was rising, the women who traditionally filled these jobs--the young and the single--constituted a stable or declining population, at least until the late 1960s. The dramatic expansion and changing composition of the female labor force in post-World-War-II America, then, are seen in part as the response of older married women to the growing demand for female labor (Oppenheimer, 1970).

Let us consider for a moment the notion of a demand for female labor and the question of the sex labeling of jobs and professions. It is well known that women are highly concentrated in a few occupations in which they constitute an overwhelming majority of all workers. For instance, in 1960, elementary school teachers and registered nurses accounted for almost 54% of all female professional employment; in 1970, they were still just over 46% of all female professionals (Fuchs, 1975). Oppenheimer (1970) has argued that the U.S. labor market is actually two markets--male and female--and that men and women in most cases do not really compete for the same jobs. The expansion of "women's" occupations after World War II led not to a demand for additional labor but to a demand for additional *female* labor.

The principal employer of women today, as it was in 1940, is the service industries and, more particularly, professional services (medical and health, education, and legal) (Waldman & McEaddy, 1974). As Oppenheimer

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* Comments by A.J. Jaffe and Murray Gendell on Oppenheimer's article appear in Demography (1975, 12, 331-336). Gendel notes that it may be the financial squeeze that propels middle-age women into the labor force (as Oppenheimer suggests), or it may be the decreased child-care responsibilities associated with adolescent children which enable women to seek outside employment.

(1970) has suggested, a number of reasons can be given for the persistence of sex labels on certain jobs:

1. Such "women's jobs" as teaching, nursing, and secretarial work depend on skilled but cheap labor in fairly large quantities--and women who are entering the labor force for the first time, or re-entering after a long absence, are willing to accept pay that is not commensurate with their skills or training.

2. Most of the training for these occupations is acquired *before* employment. Thus the employer does not bear the risk of investing time and money training women, with the attendant possibility that they will soon leave.*

3. These "women's jobs" do not require a long-term commitment, or extensive sacrifice of time, and thus women, who have traditionally been seen as secondary earners who lack high career aspirations, are attracted to them.**

4. These jobs exist all over the country, and thus women are not usually handicapped by their mobility (if their husbands must move frequently in their jobs) *or* their immobility (if their husbands must stay in one place).

5. Finally, these jobs have traditionally been held by women. The jobs are thought to call on skills that are innately female (the greater manual dexterity often attributed to women) or on skills that are acquired in the home (the patience to work with children!). Furthermore, these traditional female jobs rarely put women in a supervisory position over men--a situation that is thought to create rebellion among male underlings.

Considerable debate continues as to whether there has been any change in the sex labeling or sex segregation of occupations in recent years (Fuchs, 1975; Gross, 1968; Hedges & Bemis, 1974; Knudsen, 1969). Gross (1968) has argued, for instance, that what small decrease there may be in occupational segregation is due not to the entrance of women into traditionally male occupations but the reverse: a "decreased resistance by female occupations to the entry of males" (p. 198). Fuchs (1975) has argued that the trend is much more complex. A drop in an index of occupational segregation could occur either as a result of a change in the average amount of segregation within occupations or as a result of differential rates of growth of occupations. Using a simple index of sex segregation, which may be interpreted as the proportion of people who would have to shift to occupations dominated by the opposite sex in order to eliminate sex segregation, Fuchs finds a drop of 7 percentage points between 1960 (66.2%) and 1970

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* A recent study examines patterns of quitting for men and women, and finds that quitting to exit the labor force is larger for women, and quitting to move to another job is larger for women. Barnes and Jones (1974) also find that total female quitting is usually greater than male quitting, but male quitting is more variable from year to year.

** For a discussion of the assumptions about female career aspirations, see Crowley, Levitin, and Quinn (Note 3).

(59.2%). Fuchs notes that between 1960 and 1970 some occupations became less segregated: the greatest changes were among elementary school teachers and registered nurses (in female-dominated professions) and among engineers, accountants, and science technicians (in male-dominated professions). At the same time, the less sex segregated occupations (e.g., college and secondary school teachers, computer specialists, health technologists) were growing more rapidly.

If there is today less resistance to female employment in traditionally male-dominated occupations, it has not been without its adverse consequences. In the present recession, women workers have accounted for significantly larger proportions of the unemployed--a fact that underscores their recent entry and consequent low status in a range of occupations (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975). And among women who have been able to keep their jobs, there seems to be no decrease in the income differentials between men and women. The grim news in the 1975 *Manpower Report of the President* was that "nearly two-thirds of all full-time, year-round female workers earned *less* than $7,000 in 1972" while "over three-quarters of full-time, year-round male workers earned *over* $7,000" (p. 55). Even when earnings are adjusted for hours worked and level of education of the worker, the large differentials in earnings between male and female workers persist. For instance, Suter and Miller (1973) found, in working with income data from 1966, that "if women had the same occupational status as men, had worked all their lives, had the same education and year-round full-time employment in 1966, their income would be...62 percent of that received by men" (p. 962).

The sex labeling of jobs, the occupational segregation of women, and the consequent income differentials between men and women have been remarkably persistent in the face of dramatic demographic and socioeconomic changes. But it is precisely these changes that will inevitably restructure the career experiences and labor market activity of women in the next several decades. The present female occupational distribution, as is noted in the 1975 *Manpower Report,* is the result of myriad influences, some in early childhood: "Role differentiation in early life later affects educational and occupational choices, hours and location of work, and other factors which relegate women to lower level positions in the lower paying industries" (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975, p. 63).

The change that is coming can already be seen in the choices young women have been making in their educational and their family "careers." Because marriage is no longer an end in itself; because so many women spend time outside of marriage or in between marriages; because family/parental roles occupy a relatively short portion of a woman's total life in today's two-child society; because women are receiving the education and training (and with it the career aspirations) to cause them to plan for and expect employment opportunities parallel to those of men; and finally, because all of these conditions represent changes from the recent past, to note that the pattern of female labor force participation is likely to change is anticlimactic.

However, despite all these changes, nowhere is it suggested that the pattern of female occupational choices, earnings, or job mobility will approximate that of men, and certainly not in the near future. The reasons have nothing to do with women's skills or aspirations, and surprisingly little to do with the prospects for economic recovery in the United States in the next few years. The reasons have everything to do with the life cycle concerns discussed above. Although marital status and parental responsibilities are likely to become less salient in women's career choices, women will continue to bear the major responsibility for children, and it is their career that will continue to be marked by the need to accommodate both parental and occupational roles.

Whether female labor force participation will approximate that of males, or even whether it should--given that the distribution of mothers, and most of the responsibilities that accompany that role, is 100% female--is not a particularly fruitful line of inquiry. More productive of insight will be some close attention to the social and economic lags created by these recent social and demographic trends. Two examples come readily to mind: the "two-career family" and the "dual career" woman.

The two-career family is one in which both the husband and the wife are employed; it characterizes a growing portion of all U.S. families. Traditionally, career mobility has involved some geographic mobility. A family with school-age children and headed by one wage earner is not particularly mobile; the two-career family is even less so. What will be the effects on the labor market of the increased reluctance or inability of talented young people to move to further their careers? Or, alternatively, what will be the effect on marriage and divorce patterns on the continued importance of a certain amount of geographic mobility in furthering one's career?

Second, "dual careers": Dual careers refer to the combination and juxtaposition of parental and occupational responsibilities which confront increasing numbers of women. As more and more women with family responsibilities enter the labor force, certain institutional changes may be necessary--among them, the improvement of child-care facilities, increased flexibility of work schedules, and better provisions for job training. At what cost will these changes to accommodate the dual career woman be made? Or, alternatively, what will be the costs (social and otherwise) of *not* making the necessary institutional changes?

CONCLUSION

At the outset it was suggested that one way of summarizing these various trends was in terms of the declining importance of the family life cycle in the woman's total life cycle--the diminishing social importance of the distinction between married women and those who are unmarried (never married, no longer married, not yet married). In examining this general proposition, recent changes in a number of areas which have a direct impact on a woman's life choices were highlighted: education, marriage, childbearing, and employment.

The essential message has been: The traditional family life cycle for women has been slowly disappearing for the past quarter century; the rapidpaced changes of the past decade have released the secret, and another sacred myth is being dispelled. With the death of the myth, little doubt now exists that during the last decades of the century these trends will exert a profound effect on family, economy, social values--and, of course, the changing bases of self-identification and of sex roles.

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WILL JILL MAKE DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN? *

by Mary Back Kievit

Two portly businessmen walk down the corridor of an office building. One nudges the other and looks skeptical as they pass a door with the sign: *W.J. Millwright and Daughters, Construction.* "Hm...why not?" the other responds thoughtfully.

Jill Ingenue enters a classroom one evening a week to learn the nuts and bolts of carpentry. At 7 a.m. the next day she dons hard hat and jeans to work as an apprentice carpenter on a $3.5 million high school.

Jack Armstrong describes the conflicting values and attitudes of a fictional family and prepares students in the family relations class for a role-playing session.

Out of the way, Mac!--and a woman engineer in hard hat and coveralls working on a field site in South Jersey steps aside to allow passage. In a classroom some miles away a young woman instructs an industrial arts class in the use of selected drafting equipment.

The publicity generated when women move into traditionally male occupations testifies to its infrequency. Women are nevertheless making their way into a greater number of occupational areas. Conversely, men have challenged the exclusive hiring of women for certain kinds of jobs.

SIGNS OF DURABILITY

Although some people may be inclined to view the employment of women in all-male domains as a passing fad, there are significant economic, political and social forces that suggest otherwise. In a period of rising economic aspirations combined with rising inflation, many families are becoming increasingly dependent on two incomes. Data from the 1970 census on women's participation in the labor force indicate that the presence of children, whatever their age, is becoming less and less a deterrent.

As more women work at all stages of the family life cycle, more women are going to view work as a major adult role. Under these circumstances, women are likely to become dissatisfied with the poorly paid, low-advancement work traditionally open to them.**

Add to the above factors a decline in the birth rate, legislative support for enforcing equal opportunity in employment and education, decrease in traditionally female occupations, increased organization to protect the rights of women--and a climate emerges with powerful forces for change. This is not, of course, to minimize the counter force of a tighter labor market and higher unemployment.

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* From: M.B. Kievit, "Will Jill Make Department Chairman?" American Vocational Journal, November 1974, pp. 40-43. Reprinted by permission of American Vocational Journal.

** Oppenheimer, Valerie K. See References at end for this and other authors cited in this article.

Vocational-technical education at all levels--secondary, postsecondary, adult, college and university--can contribute significantly to eliminating the artificial barriers that deny employment to women (and men) in occupations for which they have the basic aptitudes and abilities. As vocational-technical educators, we need to ask: Are we more a part of the problem than of the solution?

Certainly, the question bears looking into at the college and university level. What is the status of women vocational educators at this level?

INFORMATION STILL MEAGER

In December 1972, AVA's resolution regarding professional opportunities for women in vocational-technical education stated that few facts were available concerning the numbers of professional men and women employed in vocational education, much less the salaries paid to each category. In mid-1974, facts were still scarce. In a search for descriptive data, I could find no comprehensive nationwide studies for four-year colleges and universities which gave data on the number of men and women in specific vocational fields.

In 1968, the National Center for Educational Statistics reported on teaching and research staffs in institutions of higher education, by academic field, but sex was not included as a variable. The composition of secondary vocational teachers by area and sex is given in Center's 1970 report, *Vocational Education: Characteristics of Teachers and Students, 1969*. But data on college and university teachers are analyzed in a manner that makes it impossible to determine what proportion of all university and college vocational educators are women.

Anyone concerned with the status of women as professional vocational educators in higher education is forced to rely on observation, deduction, and specific cases which may or may not be generalizable. University colleagues in agriculture, distributive education, health, home economics, office, technical, and T&I education tend to corroborate the impression that distribution of the sexes follows somewhat the pattern of the occupations involved.

According to an HEW survey of secondary vocational teachers (now in press), high school teachers of agriculture, technical, T&I, and distributive education are predominantly male (100 percent, 89 percent, and 77 percent respectively). Approximately 89 percent of all health occupation teachers and 98 percent of home economics teachers are women, as are 72 percent of office occupation teachers.

It can be predicted that the composition of professional educators at college and university levels will tend to favor males even in those areas where women normally predominate. Two factors support this premise. First, even where men are a numerical minority, they tend to be disproportionately represented in higher-level positions. Secondly, a lower proportion of women earn the advanced degrees required for employment in colleges and universities. Ann Sutherland Harris reports in the *AAUP Bulletin* that women earned about 13 percent of all Ph.D.'s awarded in the 1960s. Of the 216 EPDA fellowships granted to vocational educators between 1970 and 1973 for three years of doctoral study, 32 or about 15 percent were awarded to women.

Alice Cook reports that women students are distributed very unevenly within the various colleges, with relatively high enrollments in the colleges of arts, home economics, social science, and in professional schools of library science, education, nursing, and social work. Women represent a minority, sometimes very small, in agriculture and medicine. And rarely does the proportion of female to male faculty correspond favorably with the proportion of female to male students.

In the College of Human Ecology at Cornell where 90 percent of the students are women, only 58 percent of the faculty are women. In the College of Arts and Science, 28 percent of the students, but only 5.2 percent of the faculty, are women. Suggesting that conditions at Cornell probably do not differ from those in similar institutions, Ms. Cook reports the following figures on rank of faculty on the Ithaca campus:

Full professor: 658 men, 22 women (12 in the College of Human Ecology).

Associate professor: 317 men, 47 women (25 in the College of Human Ecology).

Assistant professor: 349 men, 42 women (16 in the College of Human Ecology).

Of the total faculty, 7.5 percent were women.

DEGREES AND TENURE ETC.

In the March 1974 issue of *Change*, Alan Bayer reports on a study conducted by the American Council on Education which surveyed a representative national sample of more than 300 two- and four-year colleges and universities. The study showed that in 1968-69, in all types of institutions, substantially more men than women held senior-level ranks.

In 1972-73, thirty-two percent of faculty women and 55 percent of faculty men were either associate or full professors. Women were less likely to have tenure, 45 percent in four-year colleges as compared with 69 percent of the men.

In 1968-69, nineteen percent of all college and university faculty were women. By 1972-73, the proportion had increased to 20 percent. In universities, the proportion was 15 percent in 1968-69 and 16.5 percent in 1972-73. The proportion in four-year colleges declined over this period.

In terms of advanced degrees, the survey found that in four-year colleges, 62 percent of the women and 48 percent of the men held master's degrees or less. In universities, the ratios were 67 percent for women and 31 percent for men. Women spent more time in the classroom than did men, and carried substantially more of the undergraduate load.

The meager evidence available indicates that the position of women in vocational-technical education in colleges and universities closely approximates the position of women in higher education generally. This position will be subject to modification (though admittedly slow) through the efforts of colleges and universities to comply with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972; Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964; and Executive Order 11246 as amended. The proposed rules for interpreting Title IX, published in the *Federal Register* of June 20, 1974, explicitly cite vocational courses, programs, and institutions.

SOCIAL CONSCIOUSNESS WAVE

Complex social forces have raised the consciousness of many to decry the limited opportunities for women. Government has responded with legislation designed to encourage equal opportunity. Litigation where violations occur has led to increasing enforcement. But complying with the law is primarily a reactive response, whereas the situation calls for committed, persevering, and creative leadership.

The actions of college and university faculties reflect the values and contribute to the aspirations of other groups and individuals. Thus a breaking away from rigid adherence to sex stereotyping in professional vocational education can have a positive impact at other levels. But it will call for active recruitment of women and men to programs traditionally reserved for one sex. My best estimate at this time is that there are few women employed as teacher educators in vocational agriculture or industrial arts and equally few men employed as home economics teachers. Yet under Title IX, industrial arts, vocational agriculture, and home economics courses must be open to both sexes.

Most of us believe, however, that one effect Title IX will *not* have is the stampeding of boys into home economics classes or girls into the industrial arts shops. Not because home economics has little to contribute to boys or industrial arts to girls, but because societal expectations, though changing, have defined such choices as inappropriate to their sex roles.

In Sweden, expectations are being altered. Between the ages of 7 and 10, boys and girls learn to sew and do woodworking; between 10 and 12, they learn cooking and keeping a family budget, and between 15 and 16, caring for young children.

COMMUNICABLE DISEASE

Sex-role expectations are transmitted in diverse subtle and not so subtle ways. To the extent that professionals in vocational-technical education are representative of the traditionally female and male occupational roles, the field lends reinforcement to the status quo.

Consider the likely change in the tenor of faculty discussions on instruction and curriculum if home economics, industrial arts, and trade and industrial education all offered co-ed courses taught by both men and women. And consider the impact on T&I teachers completing certification programs if one or more of the "profs" were a woman who had become a teacher educator after working as a journeyman in the carpentry trade for a number of years.

But where are those persons?

Persistent and perceptive recruitment combined with encouragement and guidance at each level is essential to achieving a redistribution of women and men among the various disciplines. Small numbers of women are now enrolling in undergraduate programs in industrial education, industrial technology, and vocational agriculture.

Federal legislation, among other factors, is opening some apprenticeship programs to women. In a 1970 issue of *Monthly Labor Review,* Janice Hedges reports that in 1968 a total of 906 women were enrolled in auto mechanics, 142 in automotive specialization, 539 in aircraft maintenance, and 977 in radio-television repair.

An effort is currently underway to develop and test a recruitment package designed to enroll women in a mechanical technology program. Some of these recruits should be embryonic professional vocational educators for positions in higher education.

Programs for teachers, administrators, and teacher educators should provide some educational experiences which lead to a re-examination of the values and attitudes that undergird the practices of channeling boys and girls into a circumscribed range of jobs, occupations, and careers. Study of the social-cultural, cultural-biological factors that have influenced definitions of sex roles can lead to greater insights.

LEANING TOWARD LIBERALISM

In August 1974 Arlene Hantjis surveyed graduate students in the Department of Vocational-Technical Education at Rutgers to assess attitudes regarding men and women in work roles. The 37 Likert-type response items were formulated to tap out four components:

(1) Personal characteristics (women talk too much on the job).

(2) Men and women working together (women who work with men waste too much time worrying about their looks).

(3) Appropriateness of occupations based on sex (men are better for jobs requiring concentration and precision).

(4) Legislative and moralistic viewpoints (enrolling women in expensive trade and technical courses is a foolish waste of taxpayers' money).

A total of 189 usable responses was obtained, 130 from men and 59 from women. The possible score ranged from 37 to 148, with a theoretical mean of 92.5. The total mean score for men was 118.5 as compared with 128.9 for women. The difference was significant at the .01 level.

Both men and women exceeded the theoretical mean, indicating that they leaned toward liberal attitudes, but the women more so than the men. These variations remained consistent when analyzed in relation to age and position.

Administrators, both men and women, had the highest mean scores when compared with classroom teachers, full-time students, and teacher/administrators. In all cases but one, the higher mean scores for women were statistically significant at the .01 level.

Another survey currently in progress compares attitudes of vocational-technical teachers in vocational schools with teachers in comprehensive high schools. Because the subjects of these studies are strategically located to recruit students at the point of initial vocational choice, these and similar studies will help assess the extent to which the attitudes and opinions of professional vocational educators impede the achievement of goals implicit in federal legislation and the basic tenet of equal opportunity for all.

FALLACIOUS STEREOTYPE

Stereotypes concerning women in professional (and nonprofessional) roles exist--too numerous to consider here. One that particularly merits attention, however, is the stereotype that disparages investment in advanced degrees for women because "women aren't seriously motivated" or "women will marry, have children, and be distracted from full contribution."

In a 1969 study, Helen Astin found that 91 percent of women who completed doctorates in 1957 and 1958 were in the labor force, and 81 percent were working full time. Of those employed full time, 79 percent reported that their careers had not been interrupted.

Those who had had graduate assistantships during their doctoral studies were more likely than others to be working full time. Seventy-five percent of the women had published at least one article, and 13 percent had published 11 or more. The women who produced the most scholarly work (primarily in research) were very active professionally, earned above the median income, and felt they had been discriminated against by their employers.

L.A. Simpson's 1970 study of attitudes of administrators and faculty toward selecting men or women for academic appointments showed that women were chosen over men applicants only when their superior qualifications could not be ignored. Reports resulting from affirmative action programs suggest similar discrimination in evaluations for promotions.

WHAT CAN BE DONE?

College and university departments can take action to combat such discrimination. For example, each department chairman and faculty might set some goals for employing fully competent women. Once on the staff, these women should have equal access to the resources necessary for production requisite to promotion. Among the needed resources are time, clerical support, and *acceptance for full participation in informal discussions.* These informal exchanges have been identified as the channels through which the most current, still unpublished information and ideas are expanded and incorporated into the work of others.

One study attributed exclusion from these informal discussions as a serious impediment to scholarly achievement by women in academic disciplines dominated by men. The norms most appropriate for governing behavior in these encounters are norms for colleagues rather than the traditional codes governing male and female relations.

Steps can be taken by professional organizations, also. Professional groups in each vocational field, for example, might provide scholarships to recruit persons of the sex currently in the minority. Goals could be set for changing the sex composition of the organization and a program of work developed toward that end. The maintenance of membership data could be systematized to provide a source of up-to-date information on progress made.

WILL JILL MAKE IT?

What changes will we as professional vocational educators produce during the next decade in the distribution of women and men in the various occupational areas at each educational level?

Will there be Jack Armstrongs in home economics and health occupation classrooms at secondary, college and university levels--as students and as teachers? Will there be a number of Jill Ingenues in the vocational shops and technology classrooms, and in the teacher education programs? Will we reluctantly comply but not lead? Or will we lead with compliance?

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P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

I.C.4.

"For Singles Only?"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

C. Objective: Identify factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The purpose of this strategy is to allow people an opportunity to discuss issues involved in attempting to balance personal and professional lives. An important point to try to understand is that while people may make their own personal decisions, the range of possibilities is greatly restricted by the demand of institutions for "workaholics."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of activity.

b. Pass out copies of "Is the Top Rung Only for Single People?" and ask people to read.

c. In small groups discuss implications. Suggested questions are:

   1) What was your overall reaction to the article?

   2) Is the situation applicable to your own life? If so, what decisions have you made and how did you make them (i.e., your reasons)?

   3) How would the situation differ by socioeconomic class, race, or physical disability?

   4) What institutional policies would have to be changed to allow a better balance of professional and personal lives, including caring for children?

   On number C.4, leader may wish to ask the group to first brainstorm institutional policies that affect their lives and then discuss which policies would have to be changed.

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Is the Top Rung Only for Single People?" (Goodman, 1978)
Reference: Goodman (1978); Safilios-Rothschild (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will give two examples of the ways institutional policies restrict personal choice.

IS THE TOP RUNG ONLY FOR SINGLE PEOPLE?[1]

by Ellen Goodman[2]

One day last week Ed Koch left his Greenwich Village apartment to take the M-6 bus downtown. About the same time that he was being sworn in as mayor of New York City, my friend Carol was turning down a job as a top executive of a New York corporation.

On the surface, these two events seem to be totally unrelated, except for the fact that they took place in the same city. But I don't think they are. You see, Koch is a bachelor, and my friend Carol is married and a parent, and there's a difference.

No, this isn't a story that ends with a one-line complaint from Carol: "If it hadn't been for you, I would have been a star." (Or a mayor, for that matter.) Nor is it a story of discrimination. Her husband didn't put his foot down. Her parents didn't form a circle around her shouting, "*Bad* Mother, *bad*" until she capitulated.

Carol chose. She wanted the promotion so much that she could taste it. But the job came with weekends and evenings and traveling attached, and she didn't want to miss that time with her husband and sons. She couldn't do both. Knowing that didn't make it any easier.

Carol isn't the only one I know making these decisions. Another friend refused to move up a rung on the professional ladder, because it would have meant uprooting his family and transferring his wife out of a career of her own. A third couple consciously put their careers on the back burner in order to spend time with the family they'd merged out of two previous marriages.

These were not bitter choices, but tough ones. As Carol said, it isn't possible to give overtime at work and decent time at home.

Once it was normal for a man to devote his energy entirely to his work, while his family was taken care of by his wife. Once men led the public lives and women the private lives. Now that gap is closing, and another one is growing between family people and single people. Everywhere it seems that men and women who care the most about their private lives are living them that way, while the single people have become the new upwardly mobile.

In Washington, you can see the difference. There, a 28-year-old bachelor such as White House aide David Rubinstein works more than 16 hours a day and eats vending-machine meals, while a guy like Rep. Lloyd Meeds, D-Wash., decides not to take his family through another congressional election fight, and drops out. There, despite the attempts of the Carters to encourage family time, the government still runs on excess. As one observer puts it, the only way to get the work done is to be single or to have a lousy marriage.

---

[1] From: Boston Globe Newspaper Co./Washington Post Writers Group, © 1978. Reprinted with permission.

[2] Ellen Goodman is a Boston Globe columnist whose columns are syndicated by the Washington Post Writers Group.

In New York, the successful politicians (aside from Koch) now include Carol Bellamy, the single head of the city council, and Andrew Stein, the divorced borough president. The governor is a widower; the lieutenant governor is legally separated.

All around us the prototypical workaholics are single, with Ralph Nader leading the Eastern division and Jerry Brown bringing up the West. And in the U.S. Senate last year there were enough divorces to justify legal insurance.

I don't think that this is something "movements" or legislation can solve. I am reminded of the moment in the movie *The Turning Point* when Anne Bancroft and Shirley MacLaine realize that they both wanted it all. These two women hadn't chosen in their lives between work and family in the classic sense, but between workaholicism and family: between the sort of success that demands single-minded devotion to a goal and the sort of "balanced" life that includes family and work, but precludes overachieving. In the end the star was the bachelor.

The decisions they faced are the rock-bottom ones, the toughies. How do you divide the pie of your life--your own time and energy?

Today, the cast of characters is changing. It isn't only men in high-powered work lives and women at home. But the choices have remained the same. There seems to be an inherent contradiction between the commitment to become No. 1, the best, the first, and the commitment to a rich family life. A contradiction between family-first people and work-first people.

The irony is that we need decision-makers who care and understand about children and private lives. And I wonder how we will find them if the room at the top becomes a bachelor pad.

"Introductions: Career Influencers"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

C. Objective: Identify factors which influence the various female and male career patterns.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants explore the influence of others on their own career development. In addition, the activity can be helpful as an opening exercise to facilitate interaction among workshop participants who may not know each other.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and the objective of the strategy.

b. Distribute a 5 x 8 card, a pencil, and a straight pin to each participant.

c. Instruct the participants to print their first and last names in the center of the card, and then to write responses to the following statements in the designated corners of the card:

   1) Top-left corner: Indicate one occupation deemed particularly appropriate for you by your parents while you were growing up.

   2) Top-right corner: Indicate one occupation deemed particularly inappropriate for you by your parents while you were growing up.

   3) Bottom-left corner: Write the name of the person who most influenced your first occupational choice after high school (including additional schooling and homemaking).

   4) Bottom-right corner: If you could choose any occupation to be involved in at this point in your life, starting next week, what would it be?

d. Give participants 3 to 5 minutes to complete their responses. Then instruct them to pin on their cards.

e. Divide the participants into heterogeneous subgroups of four to six people, and instruct them to spend 20 to 25 minutes verbally sharing information on the cards with each other. It should be made explicit to the participants that they will need to ask questions to learn about the other members of the subgroups (e.g., Who was the person who most influenced your occupational choice? Why would you choose this particular ideal occupation? What impact did race, sex, or economic class play on your occupational choices?).

f. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

In place of c.1) through c.4) other career development-related stimulus questions may be substituted for this exercise at the discretion of the leader.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: 5 x 8 cards, pencils or pens, and straight pins

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a short essay discussing the major influences on their career development.

"Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style"

I. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL UNDERSTAND THE DYNAMICS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR BOTH MALES AND FEMALES.

D. Objective: Distinguish a "career" from "occupation" and "job" and the implications this has for the process of expanding career options.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This is a very good exercise to use to introduce people to the whole area of career development. It brings out the differing perceptions and feelings that people have about "career" vs. "jobs" vs. "occupations" vs. "life style" and stimulates interest.

Instructions:

a. Pass out copies of "Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style Worksheet" and have participants fill it out based on their individual perceptions.

b. Have participants, in large group, call out their definitions or synonyms to the recorder, who writes them on the blackboard.

c. Leader summarizes and leads discussion on relationships among these categories. Be sure to bring in consideration of race, sex, or economic class stereotypes among the categories.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Markers/pens, blackboard or newsprint
Handouts: "Career/Occupation/Job/Life Style Worksheet"
Reference: Katz (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will distinguish occupation, job, and career by listing differences and discussing them.

CAREER/OCCUPATION/JOB/LIFE STYLE WORKSHEET

Directions: List all the words that come to mind and place them in the appropriate category. (This is based on your own perceptions; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.)

CAREER	OCCUPATION	JOB	LIFE STYLE
Examples:			
Long-term Changing Life style Job	Pipefitter Teacher Four to five occupations in a lifetime	8:00 - 5:00 Blue collar Boring	Single Dual-career Married

Goal II

PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

Objective and Learning Strategies

A. Examine mythical sex differences; list and explain differences between males and females.

   1. Fact or Fiction?

   2. Sex Differences: Myths and Realities

   3. Double Jeopardy

B. Cite accurate information about the history and current status of women's employment participation in the United States.

   1. Women Who Work for Pay

   2. Work Force Quiz

C. Cite implications of current employment practices for affirmative action programs.

   1. Old Boys' Network

   2. Impact of Social Policy

   3. Psychosocial Visit

D. Examine psychological and environmental factors which influence or are related to career options.

   1. Reviewing the Literature

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

II.A.1.

"Fact or Fiction?"

II. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

A. Objective: Examine mythical sex differences; list and explain differences between males and females.

1. **Learning Strategy**:

Instructions:

a. Have participants read excerpts from Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) and Block article (1976). (See attached articles, or leader may wish to summarize the articles for the group.) After reading the articles, break into small groups of five to six people and share their reactions to and feelings about the readings.

b. Suggested discussion questions are as follows:

1) What was your initial reaction to reading the Maccoby and Jacklin article?

2) Did any particular finding strike you as being true? As being false? If so, which ones?

3) How did you feel about Maccoby and Jacklin's statements concerning unfounded beliefs about sex differences?

4) Did you agree with the authors' statements on fairly well-established sex differences?

5) With the "Debatable Conclusions" which Block cites, what can we say that we really know about sex differences?

6) Do sex differences vary among different racial groups? Do the author's conclusions apply to racial minorities?

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Attached articles: "Myth, Reality, and Shades of Gray" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974)
"Debatable Conclusions about Sex Differences" (Block, 1976)
References: O'Leary (1977); Weitz (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five mythical sex differences and discuss the relevant Maccoby and Jacklin findings.

MYTH, REALITY AND SHADES OF GRAY:
WHAT WE KNOW AND DON'T KNOW ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES[1]

by Eleanor Emmons Maccoby and Carol Naby Jacklin

In a dispassionate look at all the evidence, two researchers lay the state of our psychological knowledge out flat. Yes, girls differ from boys, but...

The physical differences between men and women are obvious and universal. The psychological differences are not. Yet people hold strong beliefs about sex differences, even when those beliefs fail to find any scientific support.

Some popular views of sex differences are captured in a scene from the Rodgers and Hammerstein musical, *Carousel.* A young man discovers he is to be a father. He rhapsodizes about the kind of son he expects to have. The boy will be tall and tough as a tree, and no one will dare to boss him around. It will be all right for his mother to teach him manners, but she mustn't make a sissy out of him. The boy will be good at wrestling, and able to herd cattle, run a riverboat, drive spikes.

Then the prospective father realizes, with a start, that the child may be a girl. The music moves to a gentle theme. She will have ribbons in her hair. She will be sweet and petite, just like her mother, and suitors will flock around her. There's a slightly discordant note, introduced for comic relief from sentimentality, when the expectant father brags that she'll be half again as bright as girls are meant to be. But then he returns to the main theme: his daughter will need to be protected.

The lyrics in this scene reflect some common cultural stereotypes. There are also some less well-known stereotypes in the social science literature on sex differences. We believe there is a great deal of myth in both the popular and scientific views about male-female differences. There is also some substance.

In order to find out which generalizations are justified and which are not, we spent three years compiling, reviewing and interpreting a very large body of research--over 2,000 books and articles--on the sex differences in motivation, social behavior, and intellectual ability. We examined negative as well as positive evidence. At the end of our exhaustive and exhausting search, we were able to determine which beliefs about sex differences are supported by evidence, which beliefs have no support, and which are still inadequately tested.

First, the myths.

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1. From: Psychology Today, December 1974, pp. 109-112. Permission to reprint granted by Maccoby.

MYTH ONE: GIRLS ARE MORE "SOCIAL" THAN BOYS

There is no evidence that girls are more likely than boys to be concerned with people, as opposed to impersonal objects or abstract ideas. The two sexes are equally interested in social stimuli (e.g., human faces and voices), and are equally proficient at learning by imitating models. They are equally responsive to social rewards such as praise from others, and neither sex consistently learns better for this form of reward than for other forms.

In childhood, girls are no more dependent than boys on their caretakers, and boys are no more willing than girls to remain alone. Girls do not spend more time with playmates; the opposite is true, at least at certain ages. The two sexes appear to be equally adept at understanding the emotional reactions and needs of others, although measures of this ability have been narrow.

Any differences that do exist in the sociability of the two sexes are more of kind than of degree. Boys are highly oriented toward a peer group and congregate in larger groups; girls associate in pairs or small groups of children their own age, and may be somewhat more oriented toward adults, although the evidence on this is weak.

MYTH TWO: GIRLS ARE MORE SUGGESTIBLE THAN BOYS

Boys are as likely as girls to imitate other people spontaneously. The two sexes are equally susceptible to persuasive communications, and in face-to-face situations where there is social pressure to conform to a group judgment about an ambiguous situation, there are usually no sex differences in susceptibility. When there are, girls are somewhat more likely to adapt their own judgments to those of the group, although some studies find the reverse. Boys, on the other hand, appear to be more likely to accept peer group values when these conflict with their own.

MYTH THREE: GIRLS HAVE LOWER SELF-ESTEEM THAN BOYS

Boys and girls are very similar in overall self-satisfaction and self-confidence throughout childhood and adolescence. (The information on childhood is meager, but what there is indicates no sex difference.) The sexes do differ in the areas in which they report greatest self-confidence. Girls rate themselves higher in the area of social competence, while boys more often see themselves as strong, powerful, dominant, potent.

Through most of the school years, boys and girls are equally likely to believe they can influence their own fate, as opposed to falling victim to chance. During the college years (not earlier or later), men have a greater sense of control over their destiny, and are more optimistic in predicting their own performance on a variety of school-related tasks. However, this does not imply a generally lower level of self-esteem among women of this age.

MYTH FOUR: GIRLS LACK MOTIVATION TO ACHIEVE

In the pioneering studies of achievement motivation, girls were more likely to report imagery about achievement when asked to make up stories to describe ambiguous pictures, as long as the instructions did not stress either competition or social comparison. Boys need to be challenged by appeals to their ego or competitive feelings, for their achievement imagery to reach the level of girls'. Although boys' achievement motivation does appear to be more responsive to competitive arousal, that does not imply that they have a higher level of achievement motivation in general. In fact, when researchers observe behavior that denotes a motive to achieve, they find no sex differences or find girls to be superior.

MYTH FIVE: GIRLS ARE BETTER AT ROTE LEARNING AND SIMPLE REPETITIVE TASKS. BOYS ARE BETTER AT HIGH-LEVEL TASKS THAT REQUIRE THEM TO INHIBIT PREVIOUSLY LEARNED RESPONSES

Neither sex is more susceptible to simple conditioning, in which stimuli become connected with responses in what is assumed to be a rather automatic process. Neither sex excels in rote-learning tasks, such as learning to associate one word with another. Boys and girls are equally proficient at tasks that call on them to inhibit various responses, e.g., discrimination of certain items from others, a task requiring the subject to avoid attending or responding to irrelevant cues.

Boys are somewhat more impulsive during the preschool years, but after that the sexes do not differ in ability to wait for a delayed reward or inhibit early, incorrect responses, or on other measures of impulsivity.

MYTH SIX: BOYS ARE MORE "ANALYTIC" THAN GIRLS

The sexes do not differ on tests of cognitive style that measure one's ability to analyze, i.e., the ability to respond to a particular aspect of a situation without being influenced by the context, or restructure the elements of a problem in order to achieve a solution. Boys and girls are equally likely to respond to contextual aspects of a situation that are irrelevant to the task at hand. Boys are superior only on problems that require visual discrimination or manipulation of objects set in a larger context; this superiority seems to be accounted for by spatial ability, which we discuss below, and does not imply a general analytic superiority.

MYTH SEVEN: GIRLS ARE MORE AFFECTED BY HEREDITY, BOYS BY ENVIRONMENT

Male identical twins are intellectually more alike than female identical twins, but the two sexes resemble their parents to the same degree. Boys are more vulnerable to damage by a variety of harmful agents in the environment both before and after birth, but this does not mean that they are more affected by environmental influences in general.

The two sexes learn with equal facility in a wide variety of situations. If learning is the primary means by which the environment affects us, then the two sexes are equivalent in this regard.

MYTH EIGHT: GIRLS ARE "AUDITORY," BOYS "VISUAL"

Male and female infants do not seem to respond differently to sounds. At most ages, boys and girls are equally adept at discriminating speech sounds. There is no sex difference in memory for sounds previously heard.

No study shows a sex difference among newborns in time spent looking at visual stimuli. During the first year of life, neither sex emerges clearly as more responsive to what they see. From infancy to adulthood, the sexes exhibit a similar degree of interest in visual stimuli. They also seem to be alike in ability to discriminate among objects, identify shapes, estimate distances, and perform on a variety of other tests of visual perception.

Our examination of the social science literature also revealed some sex differences that are fairly well-established.

DIFFERENCE ONE: MALES ARE MORE AGGRESSIVE THAN FEMALES

A sex difference in aggression has been observed in all cultures in which aggressive behavior has been observed. Boys are more aggressive physically and verbally. They engage in mock-fighting and aggressive fantasies as well as direct forms of aggression more frequently than girls. The sex difference manifests itself as soon as social play begins, at age two or two and a half. From an early age, the primary victims of male aggression are other males, not females.

Although both sexes become less aggressive with age, boys and men remain more aggressive through the college years. Little information is available for older adults.

DIFFERENCE TWO: GIRLS HAVE GREATER VERBAL ABILITY THAN BOYS

Girls' verbal abilities probably mature somewhat more rapidly in early life, although a number of recent studies find no sex differences. During the period from preschool to early adolescence, the sexes are very similar in their verbal abilities. But at about age 11, they begin to diverge; female superiority increases through high school, and possibly beyond. Girls score higher on tasks that involve understanding and producing language, and on "high-level" verbal tasks (analogies, comprehension of difficult written material, creative writing) as well as "lower-level" measures (such as fluency and spelling).

DIFFERENCE THREE: BOYS EXCEL IN VISUAL-SPATIAL ABILITY

Visual-spatial ability involves the visual perception of figures or objects in space and how they are related to each other. One visual-spatial test has the subject inspect a three-dimensional pile of blocks, and estimate the number of surfaces visible from a perspective different than his own. Another has him look at a figure, then select one from a set of four that matches the original if rotated in a plane. Male superiority on visual-spatial tasks is not found in childhood, but appears fairly consistently in adolescence and adulthood, and increases through the high-school years. The sex differences are approximately equal on analytic tasks (those that require separation of an element from its background) and nonanalytic ones.

DIFFERENCE FOUR: BOYS EXCEL IN MATHEMATICAL ABILITY

The two sexes are similar in their early acquisition of quantitative concepts and their mastery of arithmetic in grade school. Beginning at about age 12 or 13, however, boys' mathematical skills increase faster than girls'. The greater rate of improvement does not seem to be entirely due to the fact that boys take more math courses, although the question has not been extensively studied.

The magnitude of the sex difference varies depending on the study, and is probably not as great as the difference in spatial ability. Both visual-spatial and verbal processes are sometimes involved in solving math problems; some problems can be solved in either way, while others cannot, a fact that may help to explain why the size of the sex difference varies from one study to another.

On some questions, we found ambiguous findings or too little evidence on which to base conclusions. These questions are still open to further research.

QUESTION ONE: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES IN TACTILE SENSITIVITY?

Most studies of tactile sensitivity in infancy or ability to perceive by touch at later ages do not show sex differences. When differences are found, girls are more sensitive, but since this finding is rare, we cannot be confident that it is meaningful. Most studies in which the results are analyzed by sex deal with newborns; more work is needed with other ages.

QUESTION TWO: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES IN FEAR, TIMIDITY AND ANXIETY?

Studies that involve direct observation of fearful behavior usually do not find sex differences. But teacher ratings and self-reports usually reveal girls as more timid or more anxious. The problem with self-reports is that we do not know whether the results reflect real differences, or only differences in people's willingness to report anxiety.

Since the very willingness to assert that one is afraid may lead to fearful behavior, the problem may turn out to be unimportant. But it would be desirable to have measures other than self-reports, which now contribute most of the data from early school age on.

QUESTION THREE: IS ONE SEX MORE ACTIVE THAN THE OTHER?

Sex differences in activity level do not appear in infancy. They begin to show up when children reach the age of social play. Some studies find that during the preschool years, boys tend to be more active, but many studies do not find a sex difference. This discrepancy may be partially traceable to the kind of situation in which measurements are made. Boys appear to be especially stimulated to bursts of high activity when other boys are present. But the exact way in which the situation controls activity level remains to be established.

Activity level is also affected by motivational states--fear, anger, curiosity--and therefore is of limited usefulness in identifying stable individual or group differences. We need more detailed observations of the vigor and quality of children's play.

QUESTION FOUR: IS ONE SEX MORE COMPETITIVE THAN THE OTHER?

Some studies find boys to be more competitive than girls, but many find the sexes to be similar in this regard. Almost all the research on competition has involved situations in which competition is maladaptive. For example, two people might be asked to play the prisoner's dilemma game, in which they have to choose between competitive strategies that are attractive to the individual in the short run, and cooperative strategies that maximize both players' gains in the long run. In such situations, the sexes are equally cooperative.

In settings where competitiveness produces greater individual rewards, males might be more competitive than females, but this is a guess based on common-sense considerations, such as the male interest in competitive sports, and not on research in controlled settings. The age of the subject and the identity of the opponent no doubt make a difference too; there is evidence that young women hesitate to compete against their boyfriends.

QUESTION FIVE: IS ONE SEX MORE DOMINANT THAN THE OTHER?

Dominance appears to be more of an issue in boys' groups than in girls' groups. Boys make more attempts to dominate each other than do girls. They also more often attempt to dominate adults.

But the dominance relations between the sexes are complex. In childhood, the segregation of play groups by sex means that neither sex frequently tries to dominate the other; there is little opportunity. When experimental situations bring the two sexes together, it is not clear whether one sex is more successful in influencing the behavior of the other. In mixed adult groups or pairs, formal leadership tends to go to the males in the early stages of an interaction, but the longer the relationship lasts, the more equal influence becomes.

QUESTION SIX: IS ONE SEX MORE COMPLIANT THAN THE OTHER?

During childhood, girls tend to be more obedient to the commands and directions of adults. But this compliance does not carry over into relationships with peers. Boys are especially concerned with maintaining their status in their peer group, and therefore are probably more vulnerable than girls to pressures and challenges from that group, although this has not been well-established. It is not clear that in adult interactions, one sex is consistently more willing to comply with the wishes of the other.

QUESTION SEVEN: ARE NURTURANCE AND "MATERNAL" BEHAVIOR MORE TYPICAL OF ONE SEX?

There is very little information about the tendencies of boys and girls to be nurturant or helpful toward younger children or animals. Cross-cultural work does indicate that girls between six and ten are more often seen behaving nurturantly. In our own society, the rare studies that report nurturant behavior involve observation of free play among nursery-school children. These studies do not find sex differences, but the setting usually does not include children who are much younger than the subjects being observed. It may be that the presence of younger children would elicit sex differences in nurturant behavior.

Very little information exists on how adult men respond to infants and children, so we can't say whether adult females are more disposed to behave maternally than adult males are to behave paternally. But if there is a sex difference, it does not generalize to a greater female tendency to behave altruistically. Studies of people's willingness to help others in distress have sometimes found men to be more helpful, sometimes women, depending on the identity of the person needing help and the kind of help that is required. Overall, the sexes seem similar in degree of altruism.

QUESTION EIGHT: ARE FEMALES MORE PASSIVE THAN MALES?

The answer is complex, but for the most part negative. The two sexes are highly alike in their willingness to explore a novel environment, when they both have freedom to do so. Both sexes are highly responsive to social situations of all kinds, and although some individuals tend to withdraw from social interaction and simply watch from the sidelines, they are as likely to be male as female.

We said earlier that girls are more likely to comply with adult demands, but compliance can take an active form; running errands and performing services for others are active processes. Young boys seem more prone than girls to put out energy in bursts of strenuous physical activity, but the girls are not sitting idly by while the boys act; they are simply playing more quietly. Their play is fully as organized and planned, possibly more so. When girls play, they actively impose their own design upon their surroundings as much as boys do.

It is true that boys and men are more aggressive, but this does not mean that females are the passive victims of aggression--they do not yield or withdraw in the face of aggression any more frequently than males do, at least during the phases of childhood that have been observed. We have already noted the curious fact that while males are more dominant, females are not especially submissive, at least not to boys and girls their own age. In sum, the term "passive" does not accurately describe the most common female personality attributes.

We must conclude from our survey of all the data that many popular beliefs about the psychological characteristics of the two sexes have little or no basis in fact. Yet people continue to believe, for example, that girls are more "social" than boys, or are more suggestible than boys, ignoring the fact that careful observation and measurement show no sex differences.

The explanation may be that people's attention is selective. It is well-documented that whenever a member of a group behaves the way an observer expects him to, the observer notes the fact, and his prior belief is confirmed and strengthened. But when a member of the group behaves in a way that is not consistent with the observer's expectations, the behavior is likely to go unnoticed, so the observer's prior belief remains intact.

This probably happens continually when those with entrenched ideas about sex differences observe male and female behavior. As a result, myths live on that would otherwise rightfully die out under the impact of negative evidence.

DEBATABLE CONCLUSIONS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES[*]

by Jeanne H. Block[**]

In a time of intense, polarized debate on the issue of the equality of the sexes, it is an awesome responsibility to undertake a distillation of available research findings regarding the extent and nature of sex differences. Eleanor Maccoby and Carol Jacklin[1] have not been intimidated by this consequential challenge. Their book, *The Psychology of Sex Differences,* has already become a frequently cited reference because of the reputation of the authors, the contemporary interest in the topic, the scope of the book's coverage, and the extensive documentation provided. The authors' conclusions about sex differences have ramifications both for psychological theorizing and for political-social decision-making. Because of its potential influence as a statement of what psychologists have found out about sex differences, the work requires close scrutiny and careful evaluation as to its conceptual and empirical adequacy.

The book, a sequel to Maccoby's *The Development of Sex Differences* published in 1966, assays the results of approximately 1,600 studies (published, for the most part, between 1966 and 1973) for inclusion in their 233-page Annotated Bibliography. Studies are organized around eight broad topical areas and, within areas, studies are classified for their relevance to particular psychological dimensions or constructs. Eighty-three tables summarize analyses in which means and/or standard deviations were evaluated for sex differences. Each table includes information about the investigator(s), ages of subjects, sample sizes, specific variables analyzed, and the results of the between-sex statistical comparisons. Each table is extensively discussed.

Maccoby and Jacklin, on the basis of their evaluation of the empirical literature, conclude that there are a number of "unfounded beliefs about sex differences" (p. 349): that (1) girls are more "social" than boys, (2) girls are more "suggestible" than boys, (3) girls have lower self-esteem,

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[*] From: J.H. Block, "Debatable Conclusions About Sex Differences," Contemporary Psychology, 1976, 21, 517-522. © 1976 by The American Psychological Association. Reprinted by permission.

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(4) girls excel at simple repetitive tasks while boys are superior on tasks requiring more complex cognitive processing and the inhibition of previously learned responses, (5) boys are more "analytical," (6) girls are more affected by heredity and boys by environment, (7) girls are less motivated toward achievement, and (8) girls are more auditorially oriented while boys are more visually oriented.

"Sex differences that are fairly well established," according to the authors, are the following: that (1) girls excel in verbal ability, (2) boys excel in visual-spatial ability, (3) boys excel in quantitative ability, and (4) males are more aggressive.

With respect to seven additional areas, the authors conclude the evidence is equivocal: (1) tactile sensitivity, (2) fear, timidity, and anxiety, (3) activity level, (4) competitiveness, (5) dominance, (6) compliance, and (7) nurturance and "maternal" behaviors.

Further, their evaluation of sex-differentiated parenting behaviors revealed "...surprisingly little differentiation in parent behavior according to the sex of the child" (p. 338) and led them to conclude that "the reinforcement contingencies for the two sexes appear to be remarkably similar" (p. 342).

Earlier assessments of sex differences by Maccoby and others (e.g., Terman & Tyler; Tyler) also evaluated the empirical literature and reached conclusions quite different from those embodied in the current Maccoby and Jacklin appraisal. The erosion in the evidence for sex differences over the past decade raises questions both puzzling and profound.

Although a monumental work, *The Psychology of Sex Differences* is nevertheless a controversial portrayal of the field. Broadly stated, three sources of weakness or disputation can be said to characterize the book: (1) sex difference research to date often does not permit sensible conclusions of any kind yet to be drawn; (2) Maccoby and Jacklin have employed various moot decision principles that importantly shape the conclusions drawn; and (3) in a sequence of surveying the literature, abstracting findings, tallying results, and then formulating conclusions, various "slippages" have occurred that sometimes are of appreciable consequence. Each of these points will be developed briefly here; an extended and documented critique is available elsewhere (Block, J.H. "Assessing sex differences: Issues, problems, and pitfalls." *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 1976, *22* (4), in press).

Attenuating factors affecting the empirical base on which conclusions about sex differences depend. Maccoby and Jacklin included all studies uncovered in their bibliographic search because "...there was no reasonable basis for selecting some studies and excluding others" (p. 11). Accordingly, there is wide variation in the quality of the data base. The statistical power of studies contributing to their conclusions range widely; more than one-third of the comparisons between the sexes are based on total samples of 60 or less and about one-fifth of the comparisons involve total samples of less than 40. In many studies, unreliability of measures is an attenuating factor; to the extent that sex differences are assessed using undependable scores, true differences between the sexes will go undetected. The conceptual quality of psychological measures used to assess sex differences has often been ignored; the absence of sex differences when evaluated by casually constructed, construct-invalid measures does not mean that differences would not emerge when appropriate measures are used. The inconsistency characterizing findings in many areas is often a function of these psychometric and methodological deficiencies.

Empirical inquiry into sex differences has often been essentially unfocused and accidental, investigators being less interested in sex differences per se than in the interrelationships among variables. In such studies, measures often are selected precisely because they have controlled for sex or have not demonstrated sex differences in other research contexts. Sex differences are tested with the hope that their *absence* will justify merging samples of males and females and will simplify analysis and reporting of results. In the absence of a conceptual rationale for expectable divergence, these studies burden the literature with null findings of inconsequential import. Maccoby and Jacklin note the incidental quality of many sex differences and suggest that the time has come for studies guided by explicit hypotheses derived from considered conceptual schema. However, in the meantime, it must be recognized that the empirical data base with respect to sex differences is unrepresentative in ways that cannot be well assessed.

The empirical literature on sex differences also reflects great unevenness in the representation of various age groups. Of the studies contributing to the Maccoby and Jacklin conclusions, 75% are based on research participants 12 years old or younger; almost 40% derive from studies of pre-school children. Other investigators have reported evidence for increasing sex differentiation with age and, guided by this insight, I examined the Maccoby and Jacklin conclusions from this perspective. When the studies cited by the authors are sorted according to the age of the participants into three categories--infancy through age 4, ages 5 through 12, and age 13 and over--the percentage of comparisons showing clear and significant sex differences shows marked increase over time, from 37% in the earliest period to 47% in the middle period, and to 55% in the oldest age group. This trend is even more striking if studies based on small samples are excluded. Conclusions about the existence of sex differences thus depend upon the age mix in the set of studies being examined, a recognition that importantly tempers the Maccoby and Jacklin evaluations based predominantly on samples of pre-adolescent children.

* * *

The evaluation framework of Maccoby and Jacklin. The authors have taken pains to indicate the decision rules and methodological values guiding their evaluational and integrative effort. But other decisions and values might as reasonably have been applied, resulting in very different summary conclusions. It is instructive to indicate how the reasonable but debatable decisions of Maccoby and Jacklin may have contributed to their conclusions.

In organizing research data, the conceptual rubric or classification scheme employed by the research collators takes on critical significance.

When research results achieved with a variety of instruments tapping different phenomena are brought together in order to assess the coherence of the empirical evidence surrounding a particular construct such as impulsivity or empathy or achievement emphasis or breaking set, what conceptual criteria shall be used to categorize the existing studies? Categories can be defined too broadly as, for example, in the achievement domain where Maccoby and Jacklin bring together some 12 indicators of parental pressures for achievement, such as praise, criticism, parental standards for intellectual performance, expectations of household help, educational goals set for the child, anxious intrusions into the child's performance, and so on. Although many of these measures clearly relate to the achievement dimension, others, lacking both construct and discriminant validity, are readily challengeable. Anxious interference and criticisms, for example, could be construed readily as indicators of maternal anxiety or impatience or intrusiveness rather than as indices of achievement emphasis. With such heterogeneous measures, it is not surprising that Maccoby and Jacklin found little difference between the sexes in the socialization pressures experienced.

Organizing rubrics also can be defined in ways that may be too limited. Thus, for example, Table 3.9 (Impulsivity, Lack of Inhibition) consists of 37 between-sex comparisons of which 28 are accounted for by the Matching Familiar Figures Test (or its variant, the Design Recall Test), Delay of Gratification tasks, and the Motor Inhibition Test. Although Maccoby earlier defined impulsivity more broadly to include distractibility, activity level, lack of persistence, temper tantrums, and aggressiveness, here the authors have chosen a more restricted, cognition-emphasizing definition. Many personologists would consider their present definition too limited and would conceptualize impulsivity more broadly to encompass noncognitive aspects as well. With a broader view of impulsivity, the conclusions of Maccoby and Jacklin would change.

Finally, classification rubrics can be established that combine conceptually disparate behaviors. For example, in evaluating sex differences with regard to the ability to "break set" or restructure, the authors consider together *both* responses to problems requiring insight for solution (e.g., the Luchins' water-jar problem) *and* responses to the word game Anagrams, a "...task calling for breaking set in a verbal context..." (p. 103). Although both insight problems and anagrams require a recombination of stimulus elements for solution, the cognitive task demands involved in classical insight problems are fundamentally different from those involved in anagram solution. Combining these two measures enables Maccoby and Jacklin to conclude that "...it is by no means demonstrated that boys excel on tasks calling for restructuring or breaking set..." (p. 132). Had they kept separate the two kinds of studies, it would be noted that males score significantly higher on insight problems (12 of 14 comparisons; no significant differences on two) while females score higher on 4 of 10 comparisons involving anagram task performance (with the remaining six comparisons showing no significant sex differences). By combining these two conceptually disparate tasks, Maccoby and Jacklin arrive at a different conclusion about sex differences in breaking set than are suggested by the task-separated data.

Obviously, theoretical preferences guide one's choice of a conceptual rubric and I do not mean to suggest that Maccoby and Jacklin have been wrong in their selections. I do mean to emphasize that other, no less rigorous, classification schemata would result in a different organization of the available empiricism and issue conclusions of a very different sort.

A second consequential decision was to "emphasize the null hypothesis." The inferential inadequacy of the null hypothesis approach and its tendency to mislead interpretation of data have long been recognized. To avoid the "hopeless inconsistency" generated by the significant-nonsignificant dichotomy (a strategy central to the Maccoby and Jacklin analysis), such statisticians as Cronbach recommend the reporting of descriptive data and the use of confidence intervals to provide a proper interpretative perspective. The interpretative perspective is distorted also when Maccoby and Jacklin enter the word "None" in the "Difference" column of their tables and use expressions like "unfounded beliefs" and "myths" in their summary evaluations of data bases yielding inconsistent findings with respect to sex differences. In these several ways, inconclusive results are transformed into strongly stated negative results.

A methodological preference running through the Maccoby and Jacklin volume is a preference for "objective" data and a disenchantment with ratings because of their vulnerability to stereotypes. In their concluding chapter, they note:

> We have repeatedly encountered the problem that so-called "objective" measures of behavior yield different results than ratings or self-reports. Ratings are notoriously subject to shifting anchor points....For example, in one study, teachers rated each child in their class on activity level; the boys received higher average ratings; but "actometer" recordings for the same group of children did not show the boys to be engaging in more body movement. Obviously, the possibility exists that teachers are noticing and remembering primarily the behavior that fits their stereotypes. (p. 356)

Their interpretation of this study is worth close inspection. In this research, Loo and Wenar found that teacher ratings of activity based on long-term observations of children in many different contexts were sex discriminating while a *single* mechanical recording of activity in the classroom situation was not. The low reliability of actometer scores is well known and, indeed, was acknowledged by the investigators. For this reason, most actometer studies use several different time samplings of activity and, under these conditions, the more reliable activity scores typically reveal sex differences. Further, Maccoby and Jacklin's stereotype interpretation of the rating results is directly challenged by a study cited in their Annotated Bibliography (Halvorsen & Waldrop) in which composited actometer scores correlated highly with teachers' ratings of activity-related variables. So, the example introduced by Maccoby and Jacklin to support their view has a more parsimonious explanation.

The second study construed by the authors as evidence for stereotypes (Meyer & Sobieszek) provides no such support since the critical analysis of variance issued *no* differences even approaching statistical significance.

Certainly, stereotypes are a problem in the scientific evaluation of sex differences and their influence must be carefully weighted. Rather than giving precedence to one kind of data over another, however, the inferential adequacy of *all* kinds of data must be evaluated closely. The preferences of Maccoby and Jacklin have led them to minimize or even to dismiss findings that would importantly modify some of their conclusions.

* * *

Slippages in the evaluational sequence. It is inevitable, in so extended and complicated an effort, that errors, omissions, and other deficiencies will occur. Inevitability accepted, it is nevertheless imperative that such inaccuracies be few and of small import. It is therefore a most unhappy responsibility to have to report finding more flaws in the documentation and interpretation of Maccoby and Jacklin than are, I believe, acceptable in a reference volume. Only a sampling of the "slippages" I happen to have encountered can be presented here.

Some studies published within the designated time span of the search for studies of sex differences were not included in the Annotated Bibliography. Errors of this kind are inescapable and difficult to estimate or to evaluate for their significance. More immediately serious is the question of the sufficiency of the research summaries in the Annotated Bibliography. These summaries are sometimes erroneous and with some frequency fail to include mention of significant interactions with sex, do not recognize the existence of consistent trends over several studies conducted by an investigator, and do not record clear differences in the patterning of relationships as a function of sex. Thus, a study by Cruse of children at four ages is summarized as finding significant sex differences at only two age levels. In fact, the original article reveals a significant main effect for sex; between-sex comparisons at each of the separate age levels are *not* reported and are not inferrable from the data. A study on childhood accidents (Manheimer & Mellinger) is tersely summarized with the statement, "boys' accident rate was higher than girls" (p. 533). The original article reveals that, in a sample of almost 9,000 successive admissions to an emergency room, boys had significantly more accidents at *every* age level between 4 and 18 years and that accident frequency *increased* with age for boys and *decreased* with age for girls. Such information adds immeasurably to the power and implicativeness of these findings. A study by Staub is reported as showing no sex differences; the original article reveals strikingly significant differences between boys and girls in the *pattern* of relationships among variables.

A second source "slippage" is the omission of relevant studies included in the Annotated Bibliography from the tables organized according to topical areas. Thus, I happened to encounter nine studies pertinent to Activity Level that were not tabled; in *each* of these nine studies, males were significantly more active.

Omissions were found to be a consequential problem in other tables as well. Table 7.5, Compliance with Adult Requests and Demands, omits eight studies from the Annotated Bibliography and Table 4.5, Curiosity and Exploration, also omits eight studies related to environmental exploration that I noted in the Annotated Bibliography. Inclusion of these studies changes the nature of the conclusions to be drawn about sex differences in activity level, compliance, and curiosity. There does not appear to be a rationale for these, and other exclusions since, in most instances, the omitted studies employed dependent measures similar (or even identical) to those tabled. Obviously, the clerical work involved in sorting and tabling studies was enormous and some error was unavoidable. What is unfortunate, however, is that the overlooked studies in some cases seem to change importantly the tenor of the conclusions.

Discrepancies between discussion in the text and tabled results represent a third source of "slippage" in the Maccoby and Jacklin volume. For example, the authors conclude that differences found in general intellectual abilities between ages 2 and 7 usually favor girls but urge caution in interpreting this finding since "the higher scores of girls tend to be found in studies of 'disadvantaged' children" (p. 65). The data referenced (Table 3.1) contains 18 between-sex comparisons in the 2 to 7 years age range. Six of these 18 studies involved "disadvantaged" samples and of these, two or 33% found girls scoring significantly higher. Twelve of the 18 studies were based on middle-class samples and of these, four or 33% found girls scoring significantly higher. Since these percentages are identical, the attribution of the observed trends to the "disadvantaged" origin of some samples is quite unjustified.

In summarizing the findings on task confidence and locus of control, Maccoby and Jacklin note "...a tendency for young women of college age to lack confidence in their ability to do well on a new task, and their sense that they have less control over their own fates than men do. These trends are not seen among *older or younger women*" (p. 359; italics added). Reference to the relevant tables for the basis of this implicative relationship raises some disconcerting questions. Table 4.8, Task Confidence, suggests that the sex difference noted at college age extends downward as well since two of the three between-sex comparisons at younger ages (7 to 14 years) find boys more confident. Table 4.9, Locus of Control, includes 12 comparisons of younger subjects; no sex differences were found in 8 of these 12 studies, suggesting that conclusions about locus of control at younger ages are, at best, equivocal. Now, consider the evidence for the assertion that differences in confidence and perceived control are not sex differentiating among adults beyond college age. Neither of the two tables includes *any* comparisons of adult men or women over the age of 21. Thus, there are no empirical grounds for the authors' assertions that "these trends are not seen among older or younger women."

Variation in the standards of evidence used to evaluate the aggregated findings surrounding a particular data base represents a final kind of "slippage" affecting conclusions about sex differences. Maccoby and Jacklin use a "box-scoring" approach to tally the results of studies within a domain according to those favoring males, favoring females, and finding no significant sex differences. Depending upon the balance of significant/nonsignificant findings, conclusions about sex differences are drawn. Thus, for sex differences said by Maccoby and Jacklin to be "well established," females score higher in 28% of the studies of verbal ability, males score higher on 9%, and the remaining 63% of the studies yield no significant sex difference.

For spatial abilities, males score higher in 39% of the studies and females in 5%; for quantitative ability, males score higher in 46% of the studies and females in 11%; and for aggressivity, males score higher in 55% of the studies and females in 5%. But compare these percentages for "well-established" findings to the percentages characterizing "equivocal" results--for example, activity level where, including the omitted studies, males score higher in 41% of the studies and females in 5%; or dominance where, including studies omitted, males score higher in 42% of the studies and females in 4%; or compliance where females score higher in 50% of the studies and males in none. Shall we conclude with Maccoby and Jacklin that sex differences are "unfounded with respect to self-esteem when males score higher in 73% of the tabled studies of task confidence and females in none; or in insight problems requiring restructuring where males score higher in 86% of the studies and females in none? And what shall we conclude about curiosity when, including omitted studies, males score higher in 48% of the studies and females in 14%? As this sampling indicates, there is wide variability in the criteria Maccoby and Jacklin used to evaluate sex differences.

* * *

Tracking a conclusion back to the original data. In previous sections, examples of "slippage" have been reported more or less in isolation. But errors can compound, their cumulative effect thus distorting seriously our understandings of sex differences. Consider, for example, the authors' comment in their summary chapter regarding "instances in [their] review where a difference was evident only briefly, during a limited age period. This appears to be true, for example, on certain measures of 'impulsivity' where boys are more impulsive only during the preschool years" (p. 357). What is the basis for this assertion regarding male impulsivity during the preschool period?

This summary statement was heralded in an earlier interpretation, this time employing a more restricted notion of "impulsivity": "The reader may recall that this is the age [i.e., preschool] at which boys were found to be more 'impulsive' in the sense that they were less able than girls to wait for a delayed, more attractive reward" (pp. 144-45).

This interpretation in turn may be traced back still further to the authors' discussion of the tabled evidence for sex differences in impulsivity: "As may be seen in Table 3.9, there is *some* [italics added] evidence that boys are more impulsive on this measure [delay of gratification] during the preschool years..." (p. 101).

Reference to Table 3.9 reveals three studies employing the delay of gratification paradigm with preschool children, two studies based on samples of largely black, lower SES children yielding no significant sex differences and one study by Mischel and Underwood in which a significant sex difference was found.

The original article by Mischel and Underwood cites three other investigations conducted by Mischel and his associates studying preschool children with a similar experimental paradigm. Mischel and Moore found *no* significant sex differences; two remaining studies made no mention of testing for sex differences. The Mischel and Moore study should have been picked up by the research scan of Maccoby and Jacklin but was neither tabled nor included in the Annotated Bibliography.

Thus, Maccoby and Jacklin's willingness to attribute greater impulsivity to boys during the preschool years is predicated upon the results of only one study together with neglect of the findings from three other studies. A single, unreplicated result based upon a specific and narrow experimental paradigm (waiting time for a preferred reward) has, through an erosion of qualifications, been converted to a positive conclusion about age-limited sex differences in "impulsivity." More substantial standards of evidence would seem to be required before such a conclusion is warranted.

* * *

In summary. This is a monumental yet ambivalence-inducing book. The authors' discussion of problems besetting research on sex differences is perceptive; their identification of areas of psychological functioning that have been underresearched or where findings appear especially inconsistent should encourage investigators toward fruitful new studies; their developmental perspectives, embodied in their discussion of the acquisition of sex-role concepts, extend previous theorizing. By systematizing and ordering, by raising questions both incisive and intriguing, Maccoby and Jacklin have generated new and provocative hypotheses about sex-role development and have helped move the study of sex differences toward the necessary next stage of scientific investigation, hypothesis testing. These are consequential contributions.

But insofar as the book is viewed as a reference work, large problems surround it. The long, arduous, complicated evaluation process undertaken by the authors in their effort to impose organization upon a sprawling, unruly body of data is vulnerable to error and reasonable argument at every step along the way. Readers seeking the state of knowledge regarding sex differences will find the book a valuable entry point into the literature, but they will need to be selective in accepting its conclusions.

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"Sex Differences: Myths and Realities"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

A. Objective: Examine mythical sex differences; list and explain differences between males and females.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to this activity, assign reading "Myth, Reality and Shades of Gray" to persons who volunteer to present a lecture on "Myths and Realities of Sex Differences," using the resources listed below.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Volunteers present overview lecture (15-20 minutes) discussing and clarifying readings. Allow opportunity for questions (15 minutes).

c. Small-group exercise. Divide participants into groups of three. Then give these directions:

> Imagine that you have been commissioned and funded to put together a brochure that will examine some of the myths and facts about sexually based differences. The brochure is to be distributed to the people you work with. (You will also be given 100 free brochures to distribute to those particular acquaintances you deem to be most in need of information.) As a starting point in your brochure development, list five interesting and important myths and facts about sex differences. Accompany each listed item with a statement documenting its classification as myth or fact.
>
> Be sure to consider differences by race in writing the brochure. For example, include mythical sex differences based on race.

d. When time allows, groups should combine to share lists.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Article: "Myth, Reality, and Shades of Gray" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974); (see II.A.1)

References: McCoy (1977); Goodstein & Sargent (1977); O'Leary (1977); Block (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five facts and myths on sex differences and be able to explain them as fact or fiction.

"Double Jeopardy"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

A. Objective: Examine mythical sex differences; list and explain differences between males and females.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The intent of this activity is to raise awareness of the situation of women who face double discrimination of sex and race. Try to bring out the effects of double discrimination. If you perceive your audience to all be white, then ask questions such as "How might experiences be different for members of other races?" and "Have any of you witnessed or experienced such differences?"

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Distribute copies of handouts "Racism/Sexism: An Analysis" and "Incidents for Discussion: A Worksheet" to all participants.

c. Allow time for all to complete worksheet.

d. Divide into groups of three to five participants; compare and discuss answers.

e. In large group, report and discuss the findings of small groups.

f. Distribute copies of "Sexism and Racism: One Battle to Fight" and discuss.

g. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Materials: Pencils

Handouts: "Racism/Sexism: An Analysis"
"Incidents for Discussion: A Worksheet"
"Sexism and Racism: One Battle to Fight" (Chisholm 1972)

References: Terry (1974); Terry (1970); Hernandez (1974); Epstein (1973)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will identify "incidents" and the stereotyped behavior which caused them and will participate in the small-group discussion.

RACISM/SEXISM: AN ANALYSIS[1]

Definition of Racism

RACISM is:

Any attitude or institutional structure which subordinates a person or group because of race,

and/or

any assignment of roles in society on the basis of race,

and/or

exploitation of minority persons, individually or as a group by majority persons.

Racism can be:

Individual, cultural, or institutional
and/or
Intentional or unintentional

Definition of Sexism

SEXISM is:

Any attitude or institutional structure which subordinates a person or group because of their sex ,

and/or

any assignment of roles in society on the basis of sex,

and/or

exploitation of females, individually or as a group, by males, or vice versa.

Sexism can be:

Individual, cultural, or institutional
and/or
Intentional or unintentional

Racism and Sexism

Exist wherever a culture is ethnocentric and/or gendercentric, power is not shared, resource distribution is inequitable, and institutions are closed and inflexible - all for the supposed benefit of one group. Can be intentional or unintentional.

Double Bind (Double Jeopardy)

The situation of minority women in the United States where they are discriminated against on the basis of both sex and race.

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[1] Summarized from an article by Robert Terry, "The White Male Club." Civil Rights Digest, 3, Spring 1974, 36-42.

INCIDENTS FOR DISCUSSION: A WORKSHEET

Instructions:

After reading the handout "Racism/Sexism: An Analysis," write about incidents from readings or personal knowledge, illustrating each concept in the handout and using the following examples. (NOTE: You will be asked to share what you have written in small groups, but have the option of choosing what you want to disclose.)

1. Give an example of an attitude; for instance, "All good chefs are men," "Indians are lazy and always drunk."
2. Give an example of assignment of role; such as kindergarten teachers expected to be female, and all women expected to fulfill only nurturant roles.
3. Given an example of exploitation; such as the exploitation of Native Americans when Manhattan Island was purchased in exchange for some trinkets.
4. Give an example of individual stereotyping; such as the refusal of an employer to hire a woman with children, although it is not the policy of the organization.
5. Give an example of cultural stereotyping; such as the generally shared belief that Asian-American women make good traditional housewives or "really know how to wait on a man."
6. Give an example of institutional stereotyping; such as the refusal of certain labor unions to admit women into their membership or the prohibition by private clubs of minorities as members.
7. Give an example of intentional stereotyping;* such as calling a Black man "boy" or saying "Black women are bitches."
8. Give an example of unintentional stereotyping;* such as "I'm going to lunch with the girls.
9. Now, give an example from your own personal experience of one incident when you were the victim of or a participant in any one of the eight forms of stereotyping described.
    a) Describe the incident:
    b) Identify both the style of stereotype (using one of the eight forms) and the specific stereotype(s) (race, sex, physically disabled, economic class, etc.).

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* What differentiates between an intentional vs. unintentional instance of stereotyping is whether or not the person doing it is conscious of her/his intentions.

*SEXISM AND RACISM: ONE BATTLE TO FIGHT**

by Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm

It is obvious to me that we black Americans can no longer look on our struggle for full participation in American society as one that is isolated from that of other second class groups. Discrimination against blacks because of the color of their skin is no more--or less--anathema to basic civil rights than is discrimination against groups because of their religion, creed, sex, or sexual orientation. When discrimination is at work, it is because those who hold power are creating petty and arbitrary barriers for the purpose of denying equal participation to those who, if allowed to compete freely within the system, would threaten the status of the power holders.

More Americans participating fully in our society, more Americans allowed to compete for top policy-making roles in government, business, and industry, would make it more difficult for the mediocre men--who have wrecked our economy, involved us in civil wars abroad, and divided us at home--to hold onto their power by limiting the corps of potential competitors.

ROLE POWER

The device used to limit competition is that of assigning different roles to the different groups in society. White males have assigned to themselves such roles as president of the United States, corporate executive, industrialist, doctor, lawyer, and university professor. They have assigned to white women such roles as housewife, secretary, PTA chairman, and schoolteacher. Black women can now be schoolteachers, too, but they are most prominently assigned to such domestic roles as maid, cook, waitress, and babysitter. Black men are thought to be good porters, bus drivers, and sanitation men.

These are roles that have been ingrained into the minds of all of us, and any attempt on the part of white women, black women, or black men to rise above their particular role is looked on with apprehension by the white males who form the establishment. All too often the potential for full intellectual development and goal realization on the part of ethnic minorities and women is suppressed by white males' denying these groups the appropriate job training and educational opportunity necessary to assume a role that white males consider to be their domain.

I do not mean to suggest that there is anything degrading about work as a domestic, a clerk, a teacher, or anything else that is honest and satisfying; hard work at any occupation can be fulfilling and rewarding. But I do object to assigning certain roles to particular groups on the basis of sex and color when there is no generic reason for doing so. And I resent the efforts of white males to limit competition for the more prestigious and higher paying occupations.

Blacks, Spanish-speaking Americans, and Indians have long objected to the exclusiveness of the establishment. Today women are voicing their objections too, and statistics tell us why. Among all employed American women, 82 percent are clerks, saleswomen, factory workers, farm workers, or in service occupations. Six percent are medical and health workers, college teachers, or other professional and technical workers. Just 5 percent are managers, officials, or proprietors. If women are, as the U.S. Department of Labor has concluded, more reliable on the job and less frequently absent from work than men, what is the reason for their preponderant employment at the lower level positions and pay scales? Quite simply, it is discrimination.

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*From: Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1972, 51, pp. 123-126. Permission to reprint granted by both Shirley Chisholm and Personnel and Guidance Journal.

Women are sick and tired of being told, "See how far you've come? You've come a long way, baby." If that's so, then why is it that of 10,000 civil service employees in jobs paying $26,000 a year or better only about 150 are women? Why is it that fewer than 1 percent of federal policy-making positions are held by women?

The truth of the matter is that the top policy-making positions in the American establishment remain in the hands of white males who are not responsive to the needs of the poor, of minorities, or of women. And we are not in a position to regulate their actions and inactions--their failure to control inflation and unemployment, their failure to respond to the call of consumers for better products at nonexorbitant costs--because regular citizens such as you and I have no power to control or replace them as long as they deny the great majority of Americans the opportunity to compete freely in our society.

Yet there is hope for oppressed groups--if we unite and challenge the forces that now hold the power in our country. This is an effort that requires these groups--minorities, women, consumers--to come together and demand representation in the high councils of the establishment, and it also requires that we forget about role playing and seek to allow persons to engage in work suited to their intellectual and physical abilities.

JOINING FORCES

Blacks must realize that there are other groups who face discrimination and who, for reasons of their own self-interest, are willing to join forces in breaking down petty and arbitrary barriers against fully productive careers within the mainstream of American life. This is why I have long spoken out in favor of coalition politics, and it is why I have been disturbed that some persons do not understand the wisdom of joint action.

Black women surely know the value of such action. We face discrimination based on both racism and sexism. And it is important for us to be involved in both black and women's liberation.

Critics of this position suggest that we should first become liberated as a people. I say there is no need to fight two different battles; we should fight both at the same time. There is an argument that women's lib is a white woman's thing and that the role to which white women have been assigned should not concern black women. Nothing, in my view, could be further from the truth, since the proponents of "black liberation only" envision that black women will someday play the same kind of role that white women now play: that of the American woman.

Cheryl Clark of the *New York Amsterdam News* has attempted to define the "American woman." She says, "A man comes along and chooses a woman he'll support in exchange for her having and raising kids, keeping house, cooking, shopping, being faithful, tryin' to be halfway attractive, and whatever else."

Such a role does not take into consideration either the needs or the talents of a woman, particularly the present-day black woman. When we consider the fact that 29 percent of black households are headed by women, we cannot expect these women to fit into this definition of the American woman. When we consider the fact that many other black and white women have to work in order to help their husbands with the bills, we cannot expect them to fit the definition either. When we honestly admit that some women are assertive and aggressive, we cannot expect these women to resign themselves to being housewives--not without their being frustrated in that capacity.

The women's movement seeks to present an alternative to the "American woman," one I feel is much more conducive to the peculiar nature and needs of the black woman.

I strongly take issue with those persons who say that it is time for black women to step back and let black men take the lead. I certainly do not object to black men taking the lead in our struggle for equal rights in America. Yet I believe that we should not place emphasis on black women stepping back; we should rather emphasize the need for black men to step ahead. We cannot afford to have any of our people stepping back!

Neither do I look on the struggle for equal rights as an all-black thing. Every American who believes in liberty and justice for all must join the struggle for equal rights for blacks and Indians, Puerto Ricans and Chicanos, and women. Progressive Americans should join in the struggle to end *all* forms of discrimination in America and to end the narrow-minded approach of assigning stereotypic roles to particular groups. Human beings cannot be assigned so easily, since we are unique in our individual abilities and characters. Liberation in America must therefore transcend ending discrimination against a particular race. It must entail ending discrimination because of sex, origin, and religion as well.

We must work to create a climate in which it will not be unusual or novel for a black or an Indian or a woman to run for a national office or advance to a high executive position. We must work to create a climate in which Americans are allowed to move up in the system solely on the basis of their intellect, perseverance, and physical ability.

"Women Who Work for Pay"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

B. Objective: Cite accurate information about the history and current status of women's employment participation in the United States.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to session, assign readings (see attached articles below) to participants who volunteer to prepare a lecture, using the resources listed below and in the previous strategy. (Leader may choose to prepare the lecture.) Lecture is to be presented following steps a and b.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants generate a set of myths. These can be used to refer back to throughout the strategy.

c. Present lecture and overhead projections depicting women's current employment status and trends. Overheads may be taken directly from Handbook on Women Workers. The "Fact Pack" in the appendix of this packet would also be useful. Be sure to note differences by race or socioeconomic background.

d. In small groups, discuss the following:

    1) Perhaps the most significant empirical finding of the 1970's is that new mothers are no longer interrupting their employment histories to be with their children exclusively. Does this necessarily indicate a gap in child care or are there important pressures on fathers to become more involved with their families? What are the constraints against fathers/males becoming more involved with their families (i.e., family, career cycle timing, norms, success orientations)?

    2) To what extent is economic class involved in the decision of a mother to interrupt her employment history to stay home with a child?

    3) Oppenheimer indicates that there has been very little change in the kinds of jobs women have worked since 1900. What are the important factors accounting for this remarkable persistence?

4) Do jobs differ depending on one's race? How? Why?

5) The readings suggest that while increasing numbers of women are in the labor force, they continue to be employed in a small number of lower level occupations. What kind of changes are needed to expand the range of jobs women hold (i.e., within women, families, career patterns, attitudes, values, and structures)? Are these changes different depending on the race of the woman?

6) Much of the research on employed mothers has dealt with determining the effects of maternal employment on children. What do we really know about the effects of maternal employment on children? How about the effects of paternal employment? Do effects differ depending on race?

7) It no longer appears to be a question as to whether women should be employed, but in what kinds of jobs they should be able to be employed. How do schools and colleges affect the kinds of choices women make? Do these differ depending on the race of a woman?

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Attached articles: "The Sex-Labeling of Jobs" (Oppenheimer, 1975)
"Women at Work" (1976)
"Myth and Reality and Shades of Gray" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974); (see II.A.I.)

References: Nye (1974); Handbook on Women Workers (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list four current facts relevant to women's employment.

*THE SEX-LABELING OF JOBS**

by Valerie Kincade Oppenheimer
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle

FEMALE OCCUPATIONS

Table 1 shows, for 1900 and 1960, occupations in which 70 per cent or more of the workers were women. Of the total female labor force, at both dates, about 50 per cent were concentrated in these occupations.[1] Important female occupations in both 1900 and 1960 were the lower level professions, such as nursing and teaching, clerical occupations, private household work, operative work in the clothing and textile industries, and certain kinds of service occupations, such as waitresses, practical nurses, and hospital attendants. On the other hand, female occupations were notably absent in such major occupational groups as managers, farmers, craftsmen and foremen, and laborers.

As we would expect, the table also reflects overall changes in the labor force. The expansion of work opportunities for women is indicated by the larger number of occupations in 1960 that were at least 70 per cent female[2] and by the growing numerical importance of jobs outside private household work and factory employment. While 77 per cent of the women on the 1900 list (42 per cent of the female labor force) were operatives or private household workers, only 27 per cent of those on the 1960 list (14 per cent of the female labor force) were in such occupations. Only 2.1 per cent of the female labor force in 1900 were in "female" clerical occupations, but this proportion rose to 19.4 per cent in 1960.

In spite of the great changes, however, 14 out of the 17 occupations which were 70 per cent female or over in 1900 remained so in 1960. Their combined significance has been greatly diminished, and the numerical importance of different occupations has changed, but, on the whole, occupations which were predominantly female in 1900 were also predominantly female in 1960. In addition, women have grown increasingly important in certain occupations, such as bookkeeping. In others, the occupation itself has become important only since 1900--office machine operators or attendants in physicians' and dentists' offices were not even listed separately in the 1900 census.

Unfortunately, this list of "female" occupations has many imperfections as an indicator of female jobs. The census has a limited number of occupational categories and, as a consequence, occupations which are predominantly composed of one sex or the other may be combined. For example, according

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* From: Valerie Oppenheimer, "The Sex Labeling of Jobs." In M. Mednick, S.S. Tangri, & L.W. Hoffman (eds.), Women and achievement: Social and motivational analyses. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975. Permission to reprint granted. This paper is based on portions of Chapter 3 of Valerie K. Oppenheimer, The Female labor force in the United States: Factors governing its growth and changing composition (Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1966).

Table 1. Occupations in Which 70 Per Cent or More of the Workers Were Women, 1900 and 1960

Occupation	Per cent female		Per cent of female labor force in occupation		Per cent of total females in occupational group in occupation	
	1900	1960	1900	1960	1900	1960
Professional and technical workers	35	38	8.2	12.5	100.0	100.0
1. Librarians	72	86	0.0	0.3	0.5	2.4
2. Nurses	94	98	0.2	2.8	2.4	22.4
3. Dancers & dancing teachers	-	77	-	0.1	-	0.8
4. Teachers	75	72	6.1	5.4	74.4	43.2
5. Dietitians & nutritionists[a]	-	93	-	0.1	-	0.8
Total			6.3	8.7	77.3	69.6
Clerical Workers	24	68	4.0	29.1	100.0	100.0
1. Library attendants & assistants	80	77	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.3
2. Stenographers, typists, & secretaries	72	96	1.8	10.0	45.0	34.4
3. Telephone operators	80	96	0.3	1.6	7.5	5.5
4. Attendants, physicians' & dentists' offices[a]	-	98	-	0.3	-	1.0
5. Office machine operators[a]	-	74	-	1.1	-	3.8
6. File clerks[a]	-	86	-	0.5	-	1.7
7. Receptionists[a]	-	98	-	0.6	-	2.1
8. Bookkeepers and cashiers[b]	(31)	82	(1.4)	5.2	(35.0)	17.9
Total			2.1	19.4	53.0	66.7
Sales Workers	17	36	4.3	7.8	100.0	100.0
1. Demonstrators[b]	(66)	92	(0.0)	0.1	0.9	1.3

Table 1. Continued

Occupation	Per cent female		Per cent of female labor force in occupation		Per cent of total females in occupational group in occupation	
	1900	1960	1900	1960	1900	1960
Operatives	35	38	23.8	12.5	100.0	100.0
1. Dressmakers & seamstresses	100	97	7.8	0.5	32.8	4.0
2. Milliners	100	91	1.4	0.0	5.9	0.1
3. Apparel & accessories operatives	70	74	3.0	1.3	12.6	10.4
4. Knitting mill operatives	78	78	0.6	0.2	2.5	1.6
5. Textile spinners[b]	(65)	79	(0.7)	0.2	(2.9)	1.6
6. Misc. fabricated textile products operatives[c]	71	(61)	0.3	(0.1)	1.3	(0.8)
7. Fruit, nut, & vegetables graders and packers	-	71	-	0.1	-	0.8
8. Laundry & dry cleaning operatives[b]	(61)	72	(1.0)	1.3	(4.2)	10.4
9. Sewers & stitchers[a]	-	94	-	2.6	-	20.8
10. Paperboard boxes & container operatives[c]	84	(33)	0.3	(0.1)	1.2	0.8
Total			13.4	6.2	56.4	49.7
Private household workers	97	96	28.7	7.9	100.0	100.0
Other service workers	34	62	6.8	13.5	100.0	100.0
1. Hospital attendants, practical nurses, & midwives	89	81	1.8	2.3	26.5	17.0
2. Boarding & lodging housekeepers	83	88	1.1	0.1	16.2	0.7
3. Housekeepers & stewards	78	80	0.5	0.6	7.4	4.4
4. Attendants, prof. and personal services[a]	-	70	-	0.2	-	1.5
5. Chambermaids & maids[a]	-	98	-	0.8	-	5.9
6. Hairdressers & cosmetologists[a]	-	89	-	1.2	-	8.9
7. Waitresses, counter & fountain workers[b]	(40)	84	(0.8)	4.0	(11.8)	29.6

(cont.)

Table 1. Continued

Occupation	Per cent female		Per cent of female labor force in occupation		Per cent of total females in occupational group in occupation	
	1900	1960	1900	1960	1900	1960
8. Charwomen & cleaners[b]	84	(68)	0.5	(0.6)	7.4	(4.4)
Total			3.9	9.2	57.5	68.0
Total percentage of female labor force in occupations 70 percent female or more			54.5	51.5		

Sources: David L. Kaplan and M. Claire Casey, Occupational Trends in the United States, 1900 to 1950, Bureau of the Census Working Paper No. 5 (Washington, D.C.: 1958), Tables 6 and 6b; 1960 Census of Population: Characteristics of the Population, Vol. 1, Pt. 1, Table 201.

[a] Not listed separately in 1900.

[b] Less than 70 per cent female in 1900. Women in these occupations were not included in the 1900 totals for occupations 70 per cent female or more.

[c] Less than 70 per cent female in 1960. Women in these occupations were not included in the 1960 totals for occupations 70 per cent female or more.

to the 1950 classification system, barbers, beauticians, and manicurists were all lumped together, and women constituted 50 per cent of the workers in this group. However, when the 1950 data were reclassified according to the 1960 system, hairdressers and cosmetologists formed a separate category, and 92 per cent of these were women. Elementary and secondary schoolteachers were combined until 1960, although reclassification of the 1950 data showed that 91 per cent of the elementary teachers in 1950 were women compared to 75 per cent of the combined category.

A second imperfection is that the concept of the job is more complex than the concept of the occupation. Occupation is, after all, only one major dimension of a job; another very important dimension is industry. For example, in 1960 women constituted 67 per cent of assemblers in electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies, but only 16 per cent of assemblers in motor vehicles and motor vehicle equipment. The fact that women constituted 44 per cent of all assemblers is, therefore, a rather poor indicator of the way in which men and women are used in different assembler-industry combinations.[4]

The drawbacks of using occupational data alone to distinguish female jobs are the greatest for very general occupational categories such as "sales workers, n.e.c." (not elsewhere classified) or "clerical workers, n.e.c." A fairly sizable proportion of female workers are found in these groups (see Table 2). For example, in 1960, 27.4 per cent of all employed female clerical workers (8.1 per cent of employed females) were in the "n.e.c." category; 90.9 per cent of all employed female sales workers were in the "n.e.c." category (7.1 per cent of employed females as a whole). However, the female density in these groups was not tremendously high--59 per cent of the clerical workers, n.e.c., and 40 per cent of the sales workers, n.e.c. But if we cross-classify these two occupational groups by detailed industry, we find that about half the workers were in industries where at least 70 per cent of workers in these occupations were female. The industrial analysis of just these two occupational categories is a good indicator, therefore, of the importance of industry in distinguishing female jobs.

Additional complications in developing a comprehensive list of female jobs arise because of intra-industry variability in the sex-labeling of jobs. The variability may be partly geographical. For example, one finds considerable regional differences in the use of women as laundry and dry cleaning operatives and as spinners in the textile industry. Only about 62 per cent of laundry and dry cleaning operatives in the Northeast were female in 1960 compared to 73 to 77 per cent in the other regions of the country. In the case of spinners, 64 per cent in the Northeast were female as opposed to 83 per cent in the South.[5]

Still another problem: an occupation in one firm may be almost entirely female and in another firm in the same industry this occupation may be largely male. These differences, which may be a function of firm size or the way in which work is organized, tend to be obscured by industrywide averages--and no finer breakdowns are available.

Thus it is hard to compile an exhaustive classification of sex-labeled jobs, particularly since certain types of female jobs may be missed altogether. For the more recent censuses it is practically impossible to take into account

Table 2. Occupation-Industry Combinations Where 70 Per Cent or More of the Employed Workers Were Women in 1960: Clerical Workers, N.E.C. and Salesworkers, N.E.C.[a]

Occupation and Industry	Per cent female	Employed females in occupation-industry combinations as a per cent of: Total employed females	Employed females in occupation-industry combinations as a per cent of: Total employed females in occupational group
Clerical workers	*67*	*29.60*	*100.00*
Clerical workers, n.e.c.	59	8.12	27.36
Durable goods industries	42	0.90	3.03
Watches & clocks	76	0.00	0.02
Nondurable goods industries	58	0.93	3.13
Knitting mills	77	0.02	0.06
Apparel and accessories	76	0.08	0.28
Printing, except newspapers	72	0.20	0.67
Leather products	81	0.04	0.15
Communications	88	0.47	1.58
Retail trade	77	0.90	3.03
Finance, insurance, & real estate	72	1.17	3.95
Business & repair services	71	0.29	0.97
Personal services	72	0.35	1.18
Professional & related services	79	0.80	2.70
Total female clerical workers, n.e.c., in industries 70 per cent or more female		4.32	14.59

(cont.)

Table 2. Continued

Occupation and Industry	Per cent female	Employed females in occupation-industry combinations as a per cent of:	
		Total employed females	Total employed females in occupational group
Sales workers	*36*		*100.00*
Sales workers, n.e.c.	40	7.32	90.88
Retail trade	54	6.59	83.98
General merchandise stores	80	2.12	27.03
Limited price variety stores	96	0.78	9.88
Apparel & accessories stores, except shoes	76	0.93	11.87
Drug stores	73	0.51	6.46
Total female sales workers, n.e.c., in industries 70 per cent or more female		4.34	55.24

Source: 1960 Census of Population: Occupation by Industry, Report PC(2)-7C, Table 2.

[a] "Not elsewhere classified."

simultaneously such factors as occupation, industry, region, and type of work organization. For earlier censuses the analysis of these factors is completely out of the question. Obviously this imposes limitations on the efforts to develop and test explanations for the sex-labeling of jobs. Thus, it is not really possible to subject any theories of sex-labeling to rigorous test, for no systematic discovery and examination of negative cases is possible. For this reason alone, theories which purport to show that certain characteristics of an occupation lead to the utilization of female rather than male labor will remain vulnerable.

Keeping these difficulties in mind, let us try to outline some of the factors which may account for the development and persistence of the sexual division of labor outside the home. The following discussion will not only focus on the problem of the attachment and persistence of female sex labels to jobs but also deal with some of the factors behind the attachment and persistence of male labels as well. This is because some of the same reasons apply to either case. In addition, an understanding of why women tend to be utilized only in certain jobs is greatly enhanced if we also have some idea of why they are *not* often utilized in others.

LABOR COSTS AND AVAILABILITY

The combination of cheapness plus availability has been fairly typical of female labor in the United States and has promoted the use of women in many jobs.[6] It certainly seems to have been a major factor in the feminization of elementary school teaching. On the one hand, in the 19th and early 20th centuries, many school districts--particularly rural ones--could not afford or were not willing to pay wages that would have attracted male teachers. On the other hand, there were few nonmanual occupations open to women at that time, and, as a consequence, many women of middle-class status or aspiration were available for teaching.[7] It does not appear that women *displaced* men in teaching--though they may have *replaced* them. There were so many other opportunities available to native men, and teaching was so poorly paid that it simply could not compete.

Cheapness and availability also appeared to be major reasons for the utilization of women in semiskilled factory work. Edith Abbott argues this in her discussion of the establishment of the factory system:

> the ease with which any man could become a freeholder and the superior chances of success in agriculture made it difficult to find men who were willing to work in manufacturing establishments....Moreover, as a question of national economy, fear was expressed regarding the possible injury to our agricultural interests if much labor were diverted from the land. Manufactures, if they were to be established, must not, it was emphatically said, be built up at the expense of agriculture....The establishment of the factory system...substantially meant, with us, the creation of new work, and made imperative a large increase in our wage-earning population.[8]

While men did not seem eager to enter factory work, the need for women on the farm was much less and they were a ready and willing labor supply.[9] Partly for these reasons, women formed a major source of labor in the cotton industry from its very earliest days. The cotton industry, in turn, has been a major source of operative jobs for American women.[10]

SKILLED CHEAP LABOR

It is undoubtedly true that women have always provided a cheap source of labor. However, it is this cheapness in combination with several other characteristics which has been decisive in the sex-labeling of many jobs. One of these combinations is cheapness plus skill. For example, a salient characteristic of teaching--even elementary teaching--is that it requires a fairly high level of education. It is true that female teachers in the past had neither the degree nor quality of education expected of teachers today,[11] but the young female teacher of the 19th and early 20th centuries was well-educated compared to the general population. In addition, the amount of training required has been steadily rising, but the occupation is still poorly paid. In 1960, for example, while both male and female elementary teachers had considerably more education than the average male worker, the 1959 median income of the male teacher was only about equal to that of all male workers, while the median income of female teachers was considerably less (see Table 3).

There are other female jobs today which offer relatively low economic rewards, but nevertheless seem to require a fair amount of education. This is illustrated in Table 3 which shows income and educational information for occupations which are at least 51 per cent female and in which the median years of school completed is greater than 11.1--the median for the total male experienced civilian labor force. What we see is that, relative to the educational attainment of the average male worker, the average number of school years completed is higher--for male as well as female workers--in virtually all the occupations where women are in the majority. Yet the average 1959 income of workers in these occupations does not compare nearly so favorably with the median income for all male workers. In other words, the more educated labor in several female occupations is not compensated by a proportionately higher income. Occupations suffering under this handicap account for quite a sizable proportion of female workers--71 per cent of all women in the professional and technical category and 98 per cent of those in clerical occupations, a total of about 42 per cent of all female workers.[12]

There is not much evidence that educational achievement is a gratuitous accompaniment of employing female labor; rather, it appears to be a characteristic in demand for itself. Even 25 years ago, Noland and Bakke found that over 90 per cent of employers in both New Haven and Charlotte preferred clerical workers to have a high-school education or better.[13]

It seems that in the course of American history the need for cheap but educated labor has tended to promote reliance on women in certain occupations. The continuously growing demand in our industrializing society for workers with a fairly high level of general education plus some special skills has (except perhaps in periods of depression) resulted in a chronic shortage of "middle quality" labor. In such a situation, it is bound to be true that

Table 3. Relative Income and Educational Standing of Selected Occupations, 1960[a]

Occupation	Ratio of median number of school years completed in occupation to median for total male labor force[b]		Ratio of 1959 median income in occupation to median for total male labor force[c]	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	1.00	1.09	1.00	0.59
Professional workers				
Dancers & dancing teachers	1.12	1.12	0.83	0.61
Dietitians & nutritionists	1.14	1.19	0.76	0.68
Librarians	1.50	1.46	1.01	0.77
Musicians & music teachers	1.34	1.33	1.03	0.29
Nurses	1.17	1.19	0.84	0.71
Recreation & group workers	1.36	1.32	1.00	0.78
Social & welfare workers	1.49	1.48	1.04	0.87
Religious workers	1.47	1.21	0.77	0.49
Elementary teachers	1.53	1.48	1.03	0.85
Teachers, n.e.c.	1.48	1.45	1.10	0.74
Therapists & healers	1.48	1.45	0.97	0.83
Clerical workers				
Library attendants & assistants	1.23	1.18	0.55	0.54
Physician & dentist office attendants	1.12	1.12	0.68	0.53
Bank tellers	1.14	1.12	0.84	0.63
Bookkeepers	1.14	1.12	0.89	0.64
File clerks	1.12	1.10	0.75	0.59
Office-machine operators	1.13	1.12	0.96	0.68
Payroll & timekeeping clerks	1.13	1.12	1.00	0.73
Receptionists	1.13	1.13	0.77	0.57
Secretaries	1.15	1.14	1.05	0.71
Stenographers	1.14	1.14	1.02	0.70
Typists	1.13	1.13	0.80	0.64

(cont.)

Table 3. Continued

Occupation	Ratio of median number of school years completed in occupation to median for total male labor force[b]		Ratio of 1959 median income in occupation to median for total male labor force[c]	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Telephone operators	1.11	1.10	1.07	0.67
Cashiers	1.08	1.08	0.78	0.53
Clerical workers, n.e.c.	1.12	1.12	0.99	0.66
Sales workers				
Demonstrators	1.08	1.09	-[d]	0.50
Hucksters & peddlers	0.92	1.09	0.82	0.16

Source: 1960 Census of Population: Occupational Characteristics, Subject Report PC(2)-7A. Tables 9 and 28.

[a] Includes occupations in which at least 51 per cent of the workers were female and where the median school years completed was greater than 11.1--the median for the total male experienced civilian labor force.

[b] Experienced civilian labor force.

[c] Wage and salary workers in the experienced civilian labor force who worked 50-52 weeks in 1959.

[d] Base not large enough to compute a median.

occupations in a poorer competitive position--secretarial work or elementary teaching, for example--will be less successful in competing for middle-quality labor and will tend to utilize low paid, educated female labor. To substitute men would require either a rise in the price paid for labor or a decline in the quality of the labor, or both.[14] Unless there are some very compelling reasons for such substitution, it seems unlikely that many female occupations of this type will radically change their sex composition.

SEX-LINKED CHARACTERISTICS

One reason employers may demand either male or female labor exclusively is because they desire workers with traits that are considered attributes of one sex or the other. Skill in spinning, weaving, and sewing, for example, were traditional skills associated with the female role. Two of the major early industries, after all, were cotton and clothing. In the case of cotton, women frequently had some experience in spinning and weaving before they entered the mill. In the clothing industry, which had developed to some extent *before* the invention of the sewing machine in 1850, all garments had to be hand-sewn. Nor did the introduction of the sewing machine reduce the reliance on women.[15] There are many other cases which can be cited of sex-linked characteristics promoting, at some point in an occupation's history, the almost exclusive use of either men or women. These characteristics may not be proven traits of one sex or the other--it is sufficient that employers *believe* they are or believe one sex has the edge over the other in some important respect.

Jobs entailing much physical strength tend to be automatically labeled male. Noland and Bakke found, for example, in their study of hiring practices in New Haven and Charlotte, that about 90 per cent of employers preferred men for common laboring jobs--those in which physical strength is more likely to be needed--and about 75 per cent required men; women were preferred only for cleaning jobs.[16]

Women are supposed by many employers to have a greater manual dexterity than men. This may or may not be true, but what is important is the extent to which employers let this belief guide their hiring policies. The Women's Bureau found that:

> firms manufacturing small delicate electronic units emphasize the importance of finger dexterity and patience in making precise measurements with small instruments and usually consider women better qualified than men for such jobs.[17]

As this quote also indicates, women are frequently credited with greater patience with routine tasks, as well as greater manual dexterity. Noland and Bakke found that employers in New Haven and Charlotte felt that women are "less likely to be dissatisfied with jobs which are repetitive or monotonous and for which pay is relatively low."[18] This was also a factor in the preference of women over men in clerical positions.[19]

Finally, sheer feminine (and masculine too, I presume) appeal is considered an important factor at times. For example, in a 1960 National Office

Management Association study, about 28 per cent of the 2,000 companies surveyed indicated that sex appeal is a qualification on some office jobs and that it is given serious consideration in the employment of receptionists switchboard operators, secretaries, and stenographers.[20]

PRE-JOB TRAINING

Labor force participation of women tends to be intermittent. For this reason, jobs requiring considerable on-the-job training entail a certain risk for the employer, which he understandably wishes to minimize. On the other hand, jobs requiring little training are, as such, favorable to the employment of women. For this reason, it has sometimes been feared that women would replace men in semiskilled work--a trend which does not appear to be taking place. However, this view passes over some of the more important facets of the situation. It is not that jobs favorable to the employment of women require *no* skills, but that the skills required can be obtained before employment.

Over the long run, female workers have been turning increasingly to white-collar occupations--occupations that require a fairly high general level of education and some specialized skills. But it is an education and training that the woman brings with her to the job, though, of course, most workers perform better with experience. Occupations such as secretary, schoolteacher, librarian, nurse, and the many types of laboratory technicians are examples of occupations for which education and some specific training are desired; however, the training requirements are not so rigorous that they would not be worthwhile given the intermittent character of women's employment. The point is that these are occupations which require skills that can be obtained before working, thus making women less risky employees.

TRADITION

Another very important factor operating to put sex labels on jobs, and even more frequently to *keep* them there is tradition. Women made the family's clothes at home and did so in the factory. They nursed the sick at home and did so in the hospitals. They took care of their own houses and other people's houses as domestics. Even today, a very high proportion of all women operatives are engaged in occupations that are traditionally feminine in this sense.

Regardless of the reason women or men were initially used in a job, tradition tends to make the particular sex label stick. For example, the Women's Bureau found that a firm

> in which the electronic technicians work with very small units, declared that women would be very readily hired if they were qualified--but no women have ever applied for such a job.
>
> The obstacle of traditional thinking appears to affect some employers as well as some women. A representative of one State employment office reported to the Women's Bureau that employers in the local area almost always specified men on their job

> orders for technicians. However, placement officers at that office noted that employers seemed to be willing to hire women when they were referred. It had apparently not occurred to some employers that women might be available for such work.[21]

The National Manpower Council also strongly emphasizes the importance of tradition in its discussion of seven employer conferences it undertook in the *Womanpower* study.

> Many employers reported that the hiring of women is frequently governed by traditional attitudes which establish what jobs are suitable for them. These traditional attitudes, it was emphasized, are operative among workers, as well as at the management level. The distinctions between "men's" and "women's" jobs appear to be particularly sharp in certain manufacturing fields; and in professional, service, and sales work, jobs are often closed to women because it is taken for granted that they should be held by men. It is believed that, if women are placed in such jobs, they are likely to produce negative reactions not only among male supervisors, fellow employees, and customers, but also in the public at large.[22]

MIXED WORK GROUPS AND WOMEN SUPERVISORS

The difficulties involved in having work groups made up of both men and women and the problems--real or presumed--involved with having women in supervisory positions tend to keep the sex composition of a job homogeneous. As Caplow argues, both sexes have been trained from youth *not* to compete and this presents problems when male and female workers are on equal job levels. If one or two women are introduced into a male work group, "the necessary adaptations to her presence appear excessive to everyone concerned, including immediate changes in verbal habits, dress and comportment, and potential changes in the organization of the group." If so many women are introduced that the sex ratio is almost even, then the sexes tend to form two groups, which may be qhite hostile to each other.[23] Furthermore, employers may have trouble in interesting men in jobs predominantly staffed by women unless it is obvious that the man is in some ways a privileged worker. The National Manpower Council found in this regard that "especially in factories...men will avoid jobs they regard as 'women's.' These are usually the jobs in which a high proportion of the workers, generally over 60 per cent, are women."[24]

If mixed work groups were common--that is, if men and women were used interchangeably in jobs and were in full competition with each other--then obviously one result might be the entry of more women into supervisory positions. However, aside from other factors which may militate against this, there appears to be a fairly widespread belief that it is best *not* to have women as supervisors. In the Noland and Bakke study, for example, 74 per cent of the New Haven employers and 83 per cent of the employers in Charlotte preferred men for administrative and executive positions.[25] One of the major reasons given was that men should deal with men--i.e., most clients, other management people, suppliers, etc., were male, and it was not appropriate to have women dealing with them. Another major reason cited was that men supervisors commanded more respect, even from women.[26] Similarly, the National Manpower Council found in their study in the fifties that most of the employers they came in contact with "maintained that women as well as men generally prefer male supervisors. It was asserted that women are more likely to accept instructions from a man than from a woman..."[27] The 1960 NOMA study indicated that men were more favored than women as supervisors--68 per cent of the responding firms said that male supervisors had a better chance for success in supervising an all female department.[28]

Whyte, in his study of the restaurant, argues that frictions tend to arise in an organization when lower status individuals try to originate action for those of higher status. He points out further that "in our society most men grow up to be comfortable in a relationship in which they originate for women and to be uneasy, if not more seriously disturbed, when the originations go in the other direction."[29] Whyte observed that in several complementary roles--waitress-counterman and waitress-barman, for example--men seemed to resent getting orders from women and all sorts of devices were utilized which, regardless of their original intent, had the function of insulating the man from the waitress so that she could not directly give him orders. To my knowledge, Whyte's thesis has not received any further empirical test. At any rate, employers and workers alike frequently seem to believe that women supervisors are not as effective as men. To the extent that this belief guides hiring and promotion policies, then supervisory and executive jobs will tend to be reserved for men.

Our discussion so far has stressed factors which promote the attachment of female sex labels to jobs. Let us now consider three important factors which tend to make and keep many jobs predominantly male.[30]

CAREER CONTINUITY

The utilization of women in certain jobs depends to some extent on the strategic advantage of career continuity. Continuity may be important in order to acquire skills, to maintain skills, to establish seniority, or to prove one's loyalty to an organization. There are at least two types of career continuity. First, an individual may need to be continuously employed in one firm for many years before some jobs are available to him. Many bureaucratic systems stress this sort of continuity, mainly for the reasons outlined above. And many executive positions certainly seem to require career continuity of this sort. In a 1952 study of executives, for example, *Fortune* magazine found that 60 per cent of the executives had worked for none or one other company before joining their present company; 77 per cent had worked for two other firms or less.[31]

Continuity of employment within one firm may not be essential, but continuity of involvement within an occupation or an industry may be of great importance. This is certainly the case in many technical professions. Medicine and other science fields require continuity of involvement in order to keep up skills and to keep abreast of a rapidly changing profession. Such continuity is important, too, in craft occupations with their institutionalized apprenticeship systems.

In general, the occupational careers of women are not continuous as their labor force participation is geared to the family life cycle. Although an increasing proportion of married women with young children do work, the proportion is still a small one. To the extent that continuous involvement within the occupation or on a particular job is an important ingredient of success or a prerequisite to get certain jobs, then women are obviously seriously handicapped.[32]

Women with professional or managerial aspirations are also handicapped by certain attitudes among employers. Many women cannot get necessary on-the-job training or promotions because employers feel that it is not worth the risk--women cannot be depended upon to be around long enough. Noland and Bakke found, for example, that one reason employers did not want to have women in executive positions was that "it is desirable that this group shall have as little turnover as possible. Too many women are likely to marry and leave the job."[33] The National Manpower Council found that

> an employer will hesitate to make a significant training investment in a woman in order to qualify her for promotion, if he thinks that she may withdraw from paid employment for any one of a series of reasons which lie outside the work situation. Considerations of cost related to work continuity, rather than prejudicial attitudes against women as such, were said to be particularly responsible for the reluctance to promote women to higher-level posts.[34]

MOTIVATION

Another important characteristic of female workers is that they tend to be secondary breadwinners. While, as Caplow has emphasized, this may result in wage discrimination,[35] there are other equally important concomitants. One consequence is that a woman's commitment to work and a career in an occupation may be seriously weakened. A great deal usually rides on the success of a man in the occupational world and for this reason his commitment and aspirations are more likely to be bound up in his work, even if the motivating force of his life is the welfare of his family. His familial and work commitments pull together to a considerable degree. For women, on the other hand, high occupational aspirations are not usually seen as promoting the welfare of the family, but rather as competing with it for the woman's scarce resources of time, energy, and emotional interest. As a result, women's occupational aspirations are frequently low. They seldom *want* to rise from file clerk to executive--the work responsibilities become too onerous. Nor do they want to go through training as time-consuming and difficult as medicine, law, and the academic professions require.[36] It is simply not worthwhile for what most women want to get out of work.

This lack of career goals is well demonstrated, I think, in three surveys of women college graduates, for if any group has career goals, you would certainly expect it to be this one. First, the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor, in cooperation with the National Vocational Guidance Association, conducted a survey of June 1957 women college graduates.[37] One of the questions was: "What are your plans for future employment?" While most of the women were working or planned to work at some point in their lives, only 18 per cent (14 per cent of those married) said they planned to have a career.[38]

The second survey reported by Alice Rossi consisted of a questionnaire sent to a sample of women college graduates three years after graduation. The women were asked the following question, and Rossi reports on the answers:

> "An American woman can be very successful in a variety of ways. Which of the following would you most like to be yourself?" The most frequent answers were: to be the mother of several accomplished children and to be the wife of a prominent man.[39]

In the third study--a national survey of graduates of the class of 1964--while few (8 per cent) of the female graduates said that they would prefer to be just housewives, nevertheless only 20 per cent said that they would prefer to combine family and career, and only 12 per cent thought that this was a realistic expectation.[40] As an indicator of the support for a career which is likely to be forthcoming from their husbands, it is interesting to note that only 8 per cent of the male graduates in the study said that they would prefer their wives to combine family and career. Twenty-five per cent wanted their wives to be housewives only, and another 59 per cent preferred their wives to work either before the birth of children or only after the children were grown.[41]

In the final analysis, however, regardless of the actual level of female motivation, employers tend to believe that women have lower career aspirations than men and act accordingly in their hiring and promotion policies. The National Manpower Council, for example, in its study of employer attitudes, reported:

> Women were described as usually less willing than men to make sacrifices required to secure the training which would qualify them for advancement. Frequently, it was reported, they are even unwilling to take advantage of chances for immediate promotion. It was suggested that this lack of interest and initiative could be both a cause and an effect of women's restricted opportunities in the working world.[42]

GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY

A final factor operating to keep women out of several occupations concerns their ability and willingness to migrate. Many professional and managerial careers require a certain amount of geographical mobility. A married woman is seriously handicapped in this respect. Her husband's career usually has priority and if it is advantageous for him to move across the country, his wife may have to leave a good job without any job, much less a good one, in sight at their destination. Or it may be necessary for the husband to stay put, while the career opportunities of his wife would be greatly enhanced if they could move. In general, then, the national and sometimes international travel and migratory aspects of professional and managerial jobs tend to discourage the widespread utilization of women as an important source of workers.

This is much less the case in most of the occupations in which women predominate, as the jobs tend to be fairly standardized throughout the country.

SUMMARY

Female jobs, on the whole, exhibit characteristics which promote the attachment of the female sex label and lack characteristics which would favor the employment of male workers. For example, three major female professions--nursing, teaching, and librarianship--depend on skilled but cheap labor in fairly large quantities; they are traditionally female occupations; most of the training for them is acquired *before* employment; and career continuity is not essential. These jobs exist all over the country, hence mobility or the lack of it is not usually a serious handicap. Diligence and a certain devotion to the job are required, but long-range commitments and extensive sacrifices of time and energy are not necessary. Employment in such occupations relatively infrequently puts the worker in a supervisory position over male employees, although she may be in a position of relative power over those outside the organization. Nurses, for example, may initiate action for patients, but their authority to do so is derived from the attending physician;[43] furthermore, the authority and the task has a distinctly feminine flavor--that of the nurturing female.

All in all, the characteristics of the female professions tend to encourage the employment of women. The opposite is the case for the predominantly male professions--law, medicine, dentistry, architecture, university teaching and administration, and the clergy, among others. These occupations are traditionally male--some, such as engineering, to an overwhelming degree. Great investments of time, energy, and devotion are required; extensive, often difficult schooling and a lifetime of overtime work are frequently associated with such professions. Continuity is usually essential, and the freedom to move or not to move, depending on the exigencies of the career, may be all-important factors in whether or not success is achieved. With the exception of extensive education (although increasingly a B.A. is a minimum requirement and some graduate work in business administration meets with considerable favor), the same factors are important in managerial occupations. Here, the reluctance to utilize women in supervisory positions is also an important factor.

To turn now to other white-collar occupations, clerical work requires cheap, but fairly well-educated labor. Training is achieved mainly before entrance into the labor market. The work is traditionally female and requires characteristics supposedly more typical of women than men--manual dexterity, plus a tolerance of monotonous and routine tasks. Here, as in other women's jobs, a strongly developed sense of commitment is unnecessary; geographical mobility is not essential and career continuity is not important, as most of these jobs have no future anyway.

Retail sales presents a somewhat similar case. Skill is even less a factor. Many retail jobs are traditionally female, particularly where the customer is expected to be a woman. None of the characteristics of predominantly male occupations seem to be in evidence--the importance of career continuity, geographical mobility, or high motivation hardly enter the picture. Male sales jobs, on the other hand, differ in several important respects from female sales jobs. On the retail side, men usually sell men's wear or expensive items like furniture, appliances, or jewelry. In wholesale trade, where men predominate, considerable sums may be involved, as sales tend to be in quantity. Career continuity may not be significant; however, if the ultimate goal is to rise into a managerial position in the company, continuity may be essential. Finally, many salesmen have to travel often. Women, especially married women, are usually not willing or able to leave their families frequently or for extended periods of time.

Similar divisions exist in manual jobs. Most craft occupations in the United States are traditionally male and control over recruitment tends to keep them that way. Both men and women hold operative jobs, but not the same jobs. There is a strong tendency to label certain operative jobs female and others male, with women concentrated in the lower paid jobs. Here the presumed male (strength) or female (manual dexterity) characteristics may be important factors in sex-labeling. In addition, the problems arising from mixed work groups or women in supervisory positions over men may be particularly acute with semi-skilled workers.

In sum, then, there are many excellent reasons why we can expect to find the extensive sex-labeling of jobs indicated by the data presented in the first part of this article. What is surprising perhaps is not that men and women usually compete in separate labor markets, but that male labor is ever substituted for female or female for male.

NOTES

1. The same can be said for the intervening censal years. See ibid., Table 3-2.

2. This may be partly due to the more detailed occupational classification system used in 1960.

3. David L. Kaplan and M. Claire Casey, Occupational trends in the United States, 1900 to 1950, Bureau of the Census Working Paper No. 5 (Washington, D.C.: 1958), Tables 6 and 6b; 1960 Census of population: Characteristics of the population, Vol. I, Pt. 1, Table 201.

4. 1960 Census of population: Occupation by industry, Report PC(2)-7C, Table 2. The occupational breakdown of the operative category is, to a large extent, organized on an industrial basis, although there seems to be a departure from this practice in the 1960 classification system. The new occupational title, "assembler," is one example of this.

5. Characteristics of the population..., Table 256.

6. This analysis rests in part on the discussion of sex-labeling of jobs in Womanpower, National Manpower Council (New York: Columbia University Press, 1957), pp. 220-244 and 86-109.

NOTES (continued)

The cheapness of women compared to men is quite well documented. For the 19th and early 20th centuries, see Edith Abbott, Women in industry (New York: Appleton, 1910), pp. 305-314 and Stanley Lebergott, Manpower in economic growth (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), pp. 126-127; for present-day differentials, see Economic indicators relating to equal pay, Women's Bureau Pamphlet 9 (Washington, D.C.: 1963), pp. 5ff, and Donald J. McNulty, "Differences in pay between men and women workers," Monthly Labor Review, XC (December, 1967), 40-43. These pay differentials do not seem to be entirely or even largely due to wage discrimination against women within individual work establishments. Rather, as the McNulty article indicates, women tend to be employed in work establishments which are in relatively low-paying industries and which hire only women workers in a particular occupation.

7. For a very interesting discussion of the entry of women into teaching, see Thomas Woody, A History of women's education in the United States (New York: Science Press, 1929), I, 460-518. Edith Abbott discusses women teachers, too. She argues that the wages of teachers were so low in the middle of the 19th century that there was even trouble finding women teachers. Cotton mills competed as an alternative employment and "it was very common to find the school-mistress in the mill for part of the year at least." (Op. cit., p. 119.) She goes on to report that Horace Mann, in an 1847 report to the Massachusetts Board of Education "was obliged to call attention to the fact that schoolmistresses were still so inadequately paid that women in many occupations in mills and factories earned six or seven times as much as women teachers. Higher salaries and more permanent employment would be necessary, he said, before school committees could 'escape the mortification which they now sometimes suffer, or being overbid by a capitalist who wants them for his factory and who can afford to pay them more for superintending a loom or a spinning frame,'" (Ibid., p. 120).

8. Ibid., pp. 48-49.

9. Ibid., pp. 55ff. See also Lebergott, op. cit., pp. 125ff.

10. In 1900 and 1940, for example, roughly 20 per cent of all female operatives were in textiles and knitting; however, by 1960, the proportion was down to about 7 per cent. See Kaplan and Casey, op. cit., Tables 6 and 6b, and Characteristics of the population..., Table 201.

11. Smuts, for example, reports that "most schoolteachers had only six or eight years of elementary education, and it was not until 1907 that Indiana became the first state to require that all licensed teachers be high school graduates. In three of the North Central states, only about 10 per cent of the teachers (men and women) during the 1891-1892 school year were normal school or college graduates. As Nicholas Murray Butler described them, the normal schools were no more than two-year 'high schools with a slight infusion of pedagogic instruction.'" Robert W. Smuts, Women and work in America (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), p. 20.

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NOTES (continued)

12. *Characteristics of the population...*, Table 201.

13. E.W. Noland and E.W. Bakke, *Workers wanted: A study of employers' hiring policies, preferences, and practices in New Haven and Charlotte* (New York: Harper, 1949), pp. 194-195.

14. As the new Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination in pay rates on the basis of sex, a rise in salary would presumably have to be offered to women as well as men in order to attract more males into the occupation.

15. Abbott, *op. cit.*, pp. 214-245.

16. Noland and Bakke, *op. cit.*, pp. 184-185. In a study of job opportunities for women as technicians, the Women's Bureau found that in the electronics field, for example, "firms producing large electronic units often require their technicians to lift and move heavy equipment; they may, therefore, refuse to hire a woman for such work if they think it is beyond her strength." *Careers for women as technicians*, Women's Bureau Bulletin 282 (Washington, D.C.: 1962), p. 3.

17. *Ibid.*, p. 3. This belief also cropped up several times in employers' conferences conducted by the National Manpower Council. See, for example, *Womanpower*, p. 93.

18. Noland and Bakke, *op. cit.*, pp. 25-26.

19. *Ibid.*, p. 65. See also, Charles E. Ginder, "Factors of sex in office employment," *Office Executive*, XXXVI (February, 1961), 10, and *Womanpower*, p. 104.

20. Ginder, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

21. *Careers for women as technicians*, p. 8.

22. *Womanpower*, Ch. III, "Women in business and industry: An employer appraisal," pp. 88-89.

23. For a general discussion, see Theodore Caplow, *The sociology of work* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), pp. 237ff.

24. *Womanpower*, pp. 90-91.

25. Noland and Bakke, *op. cit.*, pp. 184-185.

26. *Ibid.*, pp. 79-80. The hesitancy to deal with women carries over into professional work, too, of course. See, for example, Josephine Williams, "Patients and prejudice: Lay attitudes toward women physicians," *American Journal of Sociology*, LI (January, 1946), 283-287.

NOTES (continued)

27. *Womanpower*, p. 106.

28. Ginder, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

29. William F. Whyte, "The social structure of the restaurant," *American Journal of Sociology*, LIV (January, 1949), 305. See also Caplow's discussion of his thesis that it is considered disgraceful for a man to be subordinated to a woman (*op. cit.*, pp. 238ff.).

30. The following discussion is indebted to Caplow's analysis, *op. cit.*, pp. 230-247.

31. This study is based on information obtained from the three highest paid men in the 250 biggest listed industrial companies on the basis of sales, 25 biggest railroads, and the 25 biggest utilities. See Editors of Fortune, *The executive life* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1956), p. 31.

32. See *Womanpower*, p. 105.

33. Noland and Bakke, *op. cit.*, p. 80.

34. *Womanpower*, p. 105. See also Noland and Bakke, *op. cit.*, pp. 94-95.

35. Caplow, *op. cit.*, p. 235.

36. In 1965, for example, women constituted 39 per cent of students enrolled in institutions of higher education in the United States, and while they earned 41 per cent of the Bachelor's or first professional degrees and 32 per cent of the Master's or second-level degrees, they only earned 11 per cent of the doctorates. *Statistical abstract of the United States: 1967*, Tables 195 and 200.

37. *First jobs of college women*, U.S. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 268 (Washington, D.C.: 1959). The survey took place in the winter following graduation.

38. *Ibid.*, pp. 41 and 44. It is interesting to note that when the class of 1957 was surveyed in 1964, 18 per cent of those married planned a career and a career was the main reason given for working by only 13 per cent of the employed married graduates and 17 per cent of the single. See *College women seven years after graduation*, U.S. Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 292 (Washington, D.C.: 1966), Tables F-12 and F-2 8.

39. Alice S. Rossi, "Women in science: Why so few?" *Science*, CXLVIII (May, 1965), 1, 198. This article is, in general, an excellent discussion of present incompatibilities between marriage and professional careers for upper middle-class women.

NOTES (continued)

40. Fr. Joseph H. Fichter, "Career expectations of Negro women graduates," Monthly Labor Review, XC (November, 1967), 37. The survey of the 1964 senior class was conducted by the National Opinion Research Center as a companion to a study by Father Fichter of graduates of 50 predominantly Negro institutions, nearly all of them in the South. See also Fichter, Graduates of predominantly Negro colleges--class of 1964, Public Health Service Publication 1571 (Washington, D.C.: 1967).

41. An interesting comparison between Negroes and whites was that a much higher proportion of female Negro graduates both preferred (40 per cent) and expected to be able (37 per cent) to combine family and career. Furthermore, a considerably higher proportion of male Negro graduates (22 per cent) said that they would prefer their wives to combine family and career.

42. Womanpower, p. 94; see also p. 104ff.

43. Josephine Williams (op. cit.) found, however, that female doctors were not so readily acceptable.

WOMEN AT WORK[1]

Some are "empty nesters" looking for something else to do now that the kids are off to college. Some are divorced mothers forced to make ends meet on their own. Some simply need more money to supplement their husbands' inflation-ravaged paychecks. And some, nurtured by the women's movement, want to leave their traditional place in the home and pursue careers. Whatever the reason, women are surging into the offices, stores and factories of America at a rate higher than in the World War II days of Rosie the Riveter.

This year alone, the female labor force has increased by 1.6 million--almost double the number of new male workers. In all, 38.6 million women now hold jobs or are actively looking; they make up nearly 48 per cent of all women in the nation. "This may turn out to be the most outstanding phenomenon of our century," says Columbia University economist Eli Ginzberg, chairman of the misnamed National Commission for Manpower Policy. "Its long-term implications are absolutely unchartable."

The signs of change are everywhere. Eastern Airlines distributes a newsletter, Businesswoman, to the 60,000 women executives who fly Eastern each year. The Avon representative now sells at New York City offices as well as suburban homes. And last month Working Woman, a slick monthly, went on newsstands alongside the Ladies' Home Journal. Women now climb telephone poles as well as tend switchboards for AT&T, trade stocks on the floor of the New York Stock Exchange, assemble cars in Detroit and sit on the boards of the largest corporations--all highly visible symbols of the New Woman.

But such gains are still the exception. By choice or not, most women wind up in what economist Marina Whitman calls the "employment ghetto" of women's work: as waitresses and seamstresses, secretaries and bookkeepers, nurses and teachers. "It's true that more women are working, but for the most part, they're doing the kinds of jobs they've always done," says Carolyn Shaw Bell, a labor economist at Wellesley College.

Even so, the sheer number of women at work poses urgent economic and social questions. Will the economy grow fast enough to provide jobs for all the women who want them? What will happen to wages as men and women increasingly compete for the same jobs? How will the male-dominated business world assimilate the growing number of career-minded women? And what will become of the basic unit of society, the nuclear family?

Answers are slow in coming, but there are scattered hints of the changes ahead. Many corporations are recruiting and promoting women, often over their male colleagues. Some firms are experimenting with "flexitime" programs that permit employees to set their own hours, while others are trying job-sharing schemes that allow two workers to fill one full-time job. The government has instituted a tax credit for working families whose

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1. From: "Women at Work," Newsweek, December 6, 1976, pp. 68-70, 73-76, 81. Copyright 1976 by Newsweek, Inc. All rights reserved. Reprinted by permission.

children are cared for by others. Economists are studying other plans to help working women--from subsidies for employers who create more part-time jobs to a voucher system, similar to food stamps, to help pay for day care. And women themselves, in ways subtle and dramatic, are rethinking their roles as they struggle to balance their traditional chores at home with their new aspirations at work. As things change for them, they're bound to change for men, too.

Like all complex social changes, the back-to-work movement has been shaped by economic and cultural forces. Economic need is clearly one of them. "Women now work because they have to," says Arlene Kaplan Davis, a Northwestern University sociologist and director of its program on women. According to the latest statistics, nearly a quarter of all working women are single, while 19 per cent are either widowed, divorced or separated. And another 26 per cent are married to men who earn less than $10,000 a year (chart). As a result, many women who used to float in and out of the labor market depending on economic conditions now cling tenaciously to their working status. "In most recessions, women have been very obliging about getting out of the work force," says Myra Strober, a labor economist at the Stanford Graduate School of Business. "That hasn't happened this time."

One important reason is that unemployment among adult males has remained high even in the recovery, and many families now count on the wife's earnings. A high rate of inflation in recent years has eroded real disposable earnings, forcing families to rely increasingly on two incomes to maintain living standards. According to a study of 1970 data, only 46 per cent of all jobs in the economy paid enough to sustain the average family at a "reasonable" level--and since then, real income hasn't increased very much. "We now have what is basically a two-worker family," says Columbia's Ginzberg.

But other factors have dovetailed with economic need to make it easier--and more desirable--for women to work. For one thing, women tend to get service-type jobs, and such jobs have expanded somewhat faster than factory labor in recent years. For another, the "technology of the kitchen"--everything from dishwashers to frozen foods--has freed more time for paid work outside the home. The technology of the bedroom has helped as well: as the nation's birth rate fell from 19.4 per thousand to 14.8 over the last decade, the number of women in the work force between the ages of 20 and 34 jumped 14 per cent, the largest increase for any age group during that period.

Though many women don't consider themselves feminists, the women's movement has influenced the perceptions of millions of women--and men as well. "As recently as ten years ago, a woman had to defend her position if she wanted to work," says Beatrice Buckler, editor of Working Woman. "Now you have only to go out and ask the nearest housewife what she does and she'll answer, 'Just a housewife.' There's been a tremendous change in attitude."

Antidiscrimination laws have helped, too. The biggest push has come from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, which signed a landmark consent decree with AT&T nearly four years ago. Ma Bell agreed to pay $38 million in back pay and wage increases to thousands of women and minority employees "whose progress might have been delayed" by past employment practices.

(continued on page 179)

SIZING UP THE FEMALE WORKING FORCE*

23.3%	19.0%	14.6%	11.4%	31.7%
Single	Widowed, divorced, separated	Husbands earning under $7,000	Husbands earning $7,000-$10,000	Husbands earning more than $10,000

WOMAN OF STEEL

Once it was considered "man's work"--and a hellish job, at that. But now Marilyn Butsey slings around more than 8 tons of steel every day--and she's glad to have the chance. Eight months ago, the 20-year-old Butsey became the first woman to operate a "hot press" at Ford Motor Co.'s Vulcan Forge plant in Dearborn, Mich. At 150 pounds, Butsey just clears the weight limit for the dirty, demanding job: unloading, checking and stacking red-hot steel connecting rods. The temperature on the plant floor is sweltering, the hissing and pounding never stop. But the money is good--a base wage of $6.88 an hour, up to $10 an hour with incentive and overtime pay--and for Butsey the pay makes the effort worthwhile. "When they took me through the plant and I saw that fire I said, 'No way am I gonna work here,'" she recalls. "Then they told me what I'd be earning and I said, 'I'll give it a try.'"

A high-school dropout at 16, Marilyn Butsey had never earned more than $2.50 an hour before her current job. She left school to marry, got divorced four years later and then took a series of waitress and salesclerk jobs. A friend tipped Butsey that Ford was hiring women for the assembly line, but she decided to take a chance on the higher-paying forge job. "It took me a long while to get used to it," she admits. "I had to go home and soak myself every night. I was swollen all over. Now I just lift that steel like it was nothing." She is proud of her performance, and prouder still that three other women have now been hired by Vulcan.

Fitting In: Her acceptance by male colleagues was not easy, Butsey admits. "I got looks like, 'You don't belong here,' and I wanted to walk out. But I said, 'It's gonna take at least one woman to go on through,' so I went on through." Now, she says, her working relationships are "just normal." After her 3 to 11p.m. shift, however, Butsey does not socialize with co-workers.

Butsey, who lives in a $95-a-month apartment and commutes by bus, is saving $400 a month for a house and a car of her own. And she is in no hurry to remarry and raise a family. Right now, her ambition is to finish high school and perhaps move into an office job with Ford. "The only advice I have for other women," she says, "is not to let the job get them down."

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* Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

"The AT&T decision was important for symbolic reasons as much as it was for individuals," says Isabel Sawhill, a labor-market economist at the Urban Institute in Washington. "It created opportunities for employees at AT&T, but more important, it established the idea that companies have to look at their patterns of employment." At AT&T, most job categories were tightly segregated by sex. Women accounted for 98.7 per cent of all telephone operators and 94.2 per cent of the clerical jobs, while men held more than 97 per cent of the middle-management posts. As a result of the consent decree, Ma Bell has begun to undo such imbalances: the number of women in middle management has nearly doubled, and there is now a 5 per cent chance that a man will provide "directory assistance."

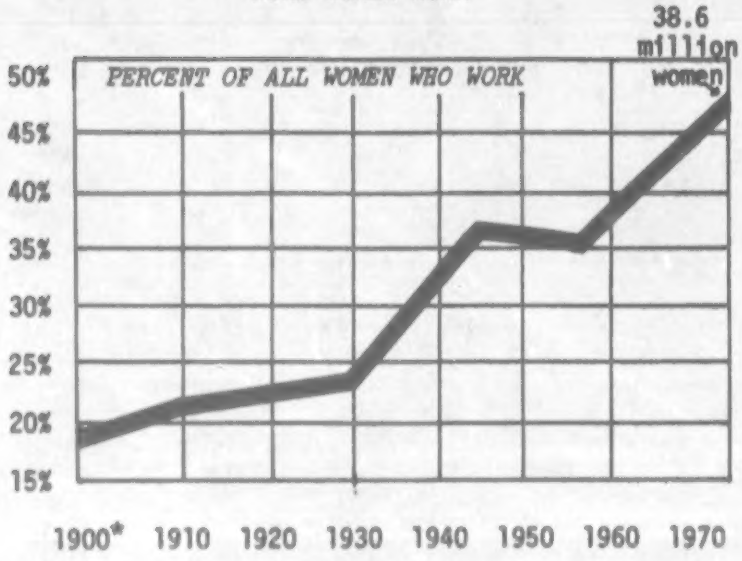
But for all the new male telephone operators or female autoworkers, most jobs in the national economy are still defined largely by sex. Men are doctors, women are nurses; men are school principals, women are teachers; men are executives, women are secretaries. In all, about half of all women work in just twelve big job categories--from beautician to bookkeeper. "Breaking down occupational segregation is the largest single problem, the key to equal women's rights," says Barbara Bergmann, an economist at the University of Maryland.

This occupational segregation stems from discrimination, from cultural conditioning and often from the personal desires of women themselves. But whatever the cause, many economists say it is the major reason that women earn far less money than men. In Leviticus, the Lord told Moses that a man is worth 50 shekels of silver, a woman only 30--and that is close to the ratio that prevails today. On the average, women earn 59 per cent as much as men, a gap that is wider now than twenty years ago (chart, page 180). "Women are crowded into employment ghettos in densities that tend to hold down wages," says economist Whitman of the Univeristy of Pittsburgh. And the pattern is reinforced by the traditional view that men need to be paid more because they are primary wage earners supporting a family. "We end up paying janitors more than legal stenographers," says Carol Schiller, Southern California administrator for the State Fair Employment Practices Commission.

Even when women land "male" jobs or neutral ones, they often earn less than men. The average salary for women teachers in secondary schools is only 81 per cent of that of men, female scientists earn 76 per cent as much as male colleagues, and female engineers 85 per cent as much. "It is quite conclusive that about one-third of the differential cannot be explained by anything but discrimination," says Sar Levitan, a labor economist at George Washington University.

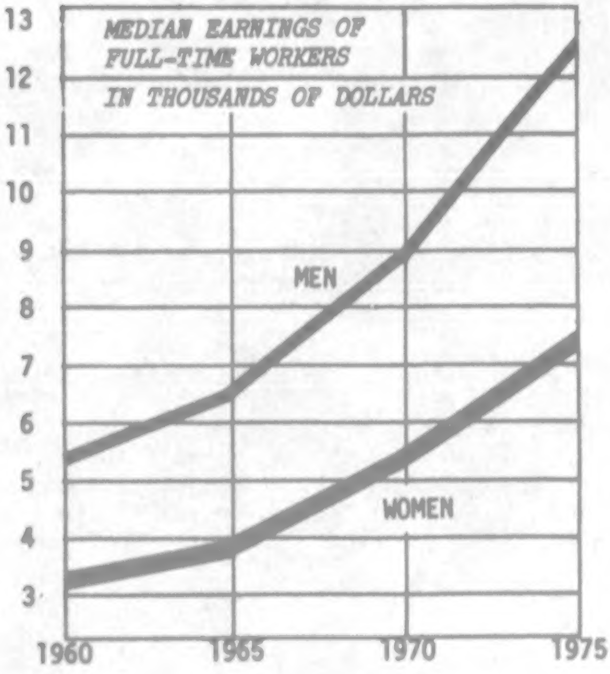
The rest of the wage gap stems from other factors. Either by preference or because she is still tied to the home, one woman in three takes a part-time job, compared to 15.2 per cent of all men--and as a result, women on the average work seven fewer hours per week than men. When they do work full-time, the vast majority of women do not belong to unions, which limits their bargaining clout. And despite the trend, many women still drop out of the labor market during child-rearing years, thus sacrificing the higher pay that comes from promotions based on seniority.

MORE WOMEN WORK



(*estimate) Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

. . . BUT WAGES LAG



Source: Bureau of the Census

In management jobs, women complain, discrimination is often subtle, with sexual stereotyping a dominant theme. "Even if you're in a 'male' job," says Jean Hoffenkamp, an underwriter for a large insurance company, "if you're the only woman in a meeting, you might get asked to take notes." Outside the office, the institutions of male society--the private clubs and golf courses where business is discussed and deals go down--place females at a disadvantage, working women say. "You lose out on all that informal corporate training," says Day Creamer, director of Chicago's Women Employed, a group of 1,000 white-collar women. Some firms have moved to break down such practices. The Bank of America, for one, will no longer pay for memberships or approve expense accounts at clubs that exclude women.

Sometimes, though, women are sexist themselves. When Montgomery Ward sent out female maintenance workers to repair appliances, at least one woman customer complained. "There's less confidence on the part of a housewife when a repairwoman shows up," says personnel manager Len Borkowski. And one survey of women holding clerical, minor management and professional jobs at a large retail corporation showed that 67 per cent of them would rather work for a man than a woman. "Everyone accepts the cultural stereotype," says Nancy Mansfield, a partner in the firm that did the survey, "and that includes women."

Many businessmen counter charges of discrimination by saying that women tend to shun responsibility and advancement. "When a young lady comes out of college, we talk about management positions and the great possibility of transfer," says Borkowski. "Then when there's an opening in Dubuque, Iowa, she doesn't want to go." At Northrop Corp., not one of the 100 women in a Boston-area plant applied when an expansion program opened up supervisory jobs to them. "They still identify with the traditional role of women," says Mary Person, the Northrop officer sent out from the company's California headquarters to investigate. "They saw the supervisory jobs as demanding time, involvement and commitments that they just were not ready to make."

Such attitudes prevail partly because many married women cannot easily relocate, spend extra time at work or travel frequently. But many women may also fear that success on the job is somehow unfeminine--a controversial thesis first propounded by psychologist Matina Horner, now president of Radcliffe College. Horner says that's still true--and these days, she adds, guilt over not taking care of the children, making more money than her husband, or both, plays a large role in a woman's feelings toward work. "If men and women can recognize autonomy and separate achievement, then the problem of fear of success might get solved," she says.

To overcome at least some of the problems, several companies have gone to great lengths to accommodate women. After AT&T signed the consent decree, it tried to encourage women to become phone installers and line workers--99.7 per cent of whom were men. About 2,000 women were accepted for training. But within a week, 50 per cent of them dropped out; within six months, another 25 per cent, already trained, left the job, and by the end of the first year, recalls James Sheridan, project chairman at AT&T's Human Resources Laboratory, "we couldn't find anybody we had started with." To

'I'M NEEDED AT HOME'

"I believe I'm a good secretary," says Greta Rhoads. But her job is a matter of necessity, not choice; she is divorced and 35, and she must support herself and her two children, Wendy, 5, and Stacey, 7. "Lots of people could do my job," she says. "But no one can do my job as a mother for my children as well as I can."

Rhoads takes home $660 a month in salary and receives $200 a month in child support from her ex-husband. After spending $340 a month for her three-bedroom apartment near Hollywood, Calif., and $150 on day care, she has just enough left for food, transportation, clothes and other needs. She knows she could earn more if she put in more hours or took on more responsibility, but she values what little time she has with her children. "I'm needed at home," she says. "It hurts me that my little ones have to spend all day away from their mother." And she hopes one day to remarry. "I know Gloria Steinem will kill me for saying this," she says, "but if a woman takes on the responsibility of a family, she should concentrate her life on that. I guess I'm old-fashioned."

THE TOP TEN OCCUPATIONS

	WORKING WOMEN, IN MILLIONS
Secretaries	3.2
Food-service workers	2.5
Teachers (except college)	2.1
Salesclerks and related workers	1.8
Bookkeepers	1.5
Personal-service workers (includes hairdressers and beauticians)	1.2
Private-household workers (includes child-care workers and maids	1.1
Professional nurses, dieticians, therapists	1.0
Cashiers	1.0
Typists	1.0

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

learn why, Sheridan's group interviewed the dropouts and found that most of them feared climbing telephone poles--injury rates were three times higher than among men--and had difficulty handling 12-foot extension ladders that weigh from 60 to 75 pounds. Sheridan then commissioned a $15,000 study that presented four alternative methods of handling the ladders.

The objection to pole-climbing presented a greater difficulty: as Sheridan learned, male and female legs differ in the way they are joined to the hip, making it harder and more dangerous for women to climb poles. So Sheridan's people began studying telephone poles and came up with the notion of portable steps that could be used with greater safety. But both men and women declined: neither group, it turned out, wanted to appear "soft." The study--it has cost the company $50,000 thus far--may continue, Sheridan says, but not before "someone proves they are interested in what our results are."

Other companies have encountered similar problems. At Westinghouse's industrial-equipment division in Buffalo, women responsible for painting heavy, cumbersome control panels were having difficulty lifting and positioning them. The result: Westinghouse installed positioning devices that reduce the physical burden on the operator. At its Pittsburgh nuclear center, the company is also experimenting with another technique: so-called flexitime that permits the 800 participating employees to put in their eight-hour day any time between 7 a.m. and 5:30 p.m. At its Chicago headquarters and New York buying office, giant retailer Montgomery Ward has a similar program to help employees. Thus far, it's a modest success. "It provides better access [to transportation] and in some cases might allow an employee who might have to quit to continue working," says Warren Clements, Ward's manager of personnel projects.

Still other companies are meeting the demands posed by the rising number of female employees by applying old ideas for the first time. While most companies have dropped the day-care centers that sprang up in the late 1960s for children of employees, Xerox, for one, has just begun a limited, experimental day-care program in Arizona. Job-sharing has suddenly attracted new attention as well, even though it often raises the costs of training and fringe benefits. Hewlett-Packard, for instance, started a pilot program at its Loveland, Colo., plant two months ago. Six pairs of employees--all but two of them women--share jobs on a ten-hour shift. Even though the employees each work five hours a day, they still receive standard company benefits, with the exception of long-term disability. But in this case the company profits as well: Hewlett-Packard saves money on overtime and gets ten hours of work from a station instead of only eight.

As important as these changes are, the assimilation of women into the work force depends on whether the economy grows strong enough to provide the jobs. The government estimates that the U.S. labor force will rise from 95 million to 114 million by 1990. Roughly two-thirds of the new job seekers will be women, most between 25 and 54. The numbers alone may strain the capacity of business to absorb them, raising the specter that high unemployment will continue. Though unemployment is less of a hardship in a two-career family than in one with a single wage earner, it could create demands for a more stimulative economic policy--and that could be

(continued on page 186)

HITTING THE TOP

Madelon Talley was bred to be the perfect Manhattan society wife. Buffed to a high gloss by the proper finishing school, she also learned from her wealthy family that too much schooling was not good for young ladies--while careers, of course, were outré. Then she married publishing executive Truman Macdonald Talley. There were summers in East Hampton, a nine-room co-op on Park Avenue, an English nanny for the children and some chic dinners at 8. But now, instead of juggling seating arrangements, Madelon Talley is managing $40 million in assets for the Dreyfus Corp. and earning $50,000 a year.

Friction: It was not an easy transition. In 1968 her friend Howard Stein, chairman of Dreyfus, offered her a job as a research assistant at $100 a week. But her family was opposed. "I didn't have what's known as a great supportive husband," she says. "And after I told my father, there was only devastating silence." Chums found her ambition equally bizarre. "When I told my friends I was going to work," she says, "they asked: 'Are you going to take the subway?'"

She did. She also took night classes in finance, worked toward a B.A. (which she will receive from Sarah Lawrence next June) and absorbed whatever she could as she worked her way up the Dreyfus ladder. "Madelon truly made it for herself," says executive recruiter Janet E. Jones, co-founder of Management Woman, Inc.--and Talley's colleagues agree.

Husband Mac has come to admire her career, too--although, he says, he was worried at first that her work would "upset the family's unity." Adds Madelon: "When Mac realized that my job is vital to me, it became fine with him." Her job became vital to him as well at one point: it provided security when he left the New American Library to form his own publishing house, Weybright and Talley.

There is still a full-time factotum at $100 a week, and the occasional dinner party at home. But Mac is more likely to be organizing it now. And he is often found helping the two younger children--Macdonald Jr., 15, and Marina, 11--with schoolwork; Madelon often spends hours in her plum-colored study, working on a book about women and finance. She is also wondering where to go from here. "I don't think men understand that women are as ambitious as they are," she says. "We really want the top jobs."

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ON DOUBLE DUTY--AND LIKING IT

Cheryl Cromley never set out to be Superwoman. When she graduated from high school in Springfield, Ill., and took a bank clerk's job, Cromley says, "I was waiting for some guy to sweep me off my feet." The guy turned out to be David Cromley, an assembly-line worker, and at first, she recalls, "he didn't want his wife to work." But after her two children were born, the family needed more money--and two years ago, Cheryl Cromley went back to work. "At first it was to earn enough to buy extra clothes and pay the insurance bills," Cheryl explains. "But then we got used to it."

Now she is a full-time clerk-typist for the Illinois Commerce Commission, with an awesome schedule. Every weekday, she gets up at 5:30 a.m., makes breakfast for the family and dresses her daughters, Tracy, 7, and Kerry, 4. At 7:15 a.m. husband David drops her off at the office and drives the girls to a private day-care center. Cheryl, 28, then puts in a seven-and-a-half hour day at $3.97 an hour, typing permits for truck drivers, acting as union representative and putting out a newsletter for clerical workers. At 4:10 p.m. David picks her up, and the timetable is reversed. "When I get home, I start fixing dinner and usually David sits," says Cromley. "Then I do the chores, the laundry, the vacuuming and pop the kids in the tub. Then I pop myself into the tub." Two nights a week, she also takes courses in data processing. And sometime between 10:30 p.m. and 12:30 a.m., Cromley finally gets to bed.

Ambition: It is the sort of double-duty existence that many women lead. But Cromley admits to no regrets. "I enjoy working and I really feel good about it," she says. At first, her younger daughter had a hard time adjusting. "She found out some mommies don't work and she cried every day for nearly a month," Cromley says. "But now she says she's going to grow up and be a clerk, too."

Cromley's take-home pay is about $115 a week, her husband's $180. Despite all their expenses, they manage to buy a $100 savings bond every month. "If we lived on David's salary alone, it'd be merely survival," she says.

For Cromley, however, the reward for working has gone beyond the added spending money, and she hopes to advance someday to computer or personnel work. "Work is a part of my life now," she says. "It'll always be a part of my life."

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inflationary. On the other hand, the influx of women into the labor pool at least creates the potential for a higher rate of economic growth.

Economists are also unsure what will happen to wages as men and women increasingly compete for the same jobs. Some speculate that the competition for traditionally male jobs could depress salaries. But others say any such drop will be offset if men, with their higher wage expectations, move into female jobs, thus ratcheting up wage scales for such work.

Other economic effects are more predictable. As more women work, two-income families pinched for time will probably eat more of their meals in restaurants, consume more convenience foods at home, spend more on domestic help and day care and shop in stores that stay open on Sundays. And one way or another, experts believe, the economy will gradually adjust. But the social changes will undoubtedly be more difficult. So far, the burden has fallen mainly on the woman to reconcile her dual aspirations. But if the trend continues, men may well have to spend more time running the house and raising the children--and their employers may have to accommodate these changes, too. If anatomy is no longer to be destiny and society genuinely wants full equality between the sexes, the wrenching readjustments may have only begun.

--Michael Ruby with Tom Joyce in Washington, Barbara Graustark in New York, Elain Sciolino in Chicago and bureau reports

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"Work Force Quiz"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

B. Objective: Cite accurate information about the history and current status of women's employment participation in the United States.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy can help raise the participants' awareness of the current status of women and men in the world of work. Appropriate as a thought-provoking and nonthreatening activity, it could be best utilized in the beginning of a training sequence. The attached article is for more in-depth investigation of women in the work force. Be sure to allow enough discussion time following the activity for the participants. This is important for idea sharing and clarification.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy:

b. Pass out to each workshop participant a copy of "U.S.A. Work Force Information Quiz" and ask them to fill in their best estimates of the correct answers.

c. After everyone has completed the quiz, the group members should reach a consensus on which answers are correct, discussing both the answers and the reasoning which led them to their conclusions.

d. The consensus answers should be posted on the blackboard or a piece of newsprint before the correct answers are posted.

e. Reactions to any unexpected results, etc., should then be discussed by the group, and considered in the context of existing and ideal career patterns and choices for women and men as well as differing perspectives on what might be ideal.

f. Present and discuss the answers (see below).

g. Hand out copies of selected items from the "Fact Pack" (see appendix) for use as a follow-up reading.

h. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, pens, blackboard and chalk or newsprint and felt-tip markers

Handout: "U.S.A. Work Force Information Quiz"

References: Council on Interracial Books for Children (1975); Hayghe (1976); U.S. Dept. of Labor, Special Labor Force Report 189 (1975); Verheyden-Hilliard (1976)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will complete the quiz (with at least sixty percent accuracy) and discuss the correct answers as they relate to implications for current and future career decisions.

Answer Key - "U.S.A. Work Force Information Quiz"

1. b
2. c
3. c
4. d
5. d
6. c
7. b
8. c
9. a
10. b
11. d
12. a
13. c
14. a (retail salesclerk, secretary, household worker, elementary school teacher, bookkeeper, waitress, nurse.)

U.S.A. WORK FORCE INFORMATION QUIZ

1. ____% of the total United States work force are women.

   a. 25 b. 40 c. 60 d. 75

2. Of all women between the ages of 18 and 64, approximately____% are in the work force.

   a. 15 b. 35 c. 55 d. 75

3. Of all married women, approximately____% presently are in the work force.

   a. 10 b. 45 c. 60 d. 85

4. Married women, on the average, hold jobs outside the home for___years.

   a. 5 b. 10 c. 15 d. 25

5. ____out of 10 married women will be employed outside the home for some time.

   a. 3 b. 5 c. 6 d. 9

6. In recent years, more than____% of mothers held paying jobs.

   a. 8 b. 25 c. 40 d. 50

7. In 1974, of the more than 37,000 highly paid airline pilots in the United States,____were Black.

   a. around 10 b. less than 100 c. around 1,000 d. more than 2,500

8. In the second quarter of 1975, unemployment among all whites in the work force was 8.0%; among all other racial groups, the overall unemployment figure was____% during this period.

   a. 8.9 b. 10.5 c. 14.3 d. 20.1

9. In 1975, ____% of all families with both husband and wife living in the home fit the traditional pattern of the husband alone as family breadwinner; both husband and wife held jobs outside the home in ____% of these families.

   a. 34,31 b. 45,30 c. 52,23 d. 66,9

10. In recent years, around ____% of all men in the work force earned $10,000 or more, and around ____% of all women in the work force earned the same amount.

    a. 32,25 b. 40,10 c. 55,35 d. 30,30

11. Around____% of all architects and lawyers in the United States are men.

    a. 45 b. 65 c. 75 d. 95

12. The median income of fully employed women who have earned a college degree is less than that of the median income of fully employed men with a/an____ education.

    a. 8th grade b. high school c. college d. graduate

13. Of all the women in the work force,____% have clerical or personal service jobs.

    a. 30 b. 40 c. 50 d. 60

14. Of the 23,000 different occupations available in the United States, 1/3 of all working women can be found in______of these occupations.

    a. 7 b. 396 c. 3,481 d. 15,216

"Old Boys' Network"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

C. Objective: Cite implications of current employment practices for affirmative action programs.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is to help people become aware of how hiring practices reflect sex bias and analyze concrete ways to bring about change toward sex fairness in this area. Leaders should be ready to ask probing questions. For example, some people will say "We have no problem," and you could respond, "Are there equal numbers of women and men in administrative positions at your institution?"

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Summarize the Granovetter article on "Getting a Job" (attached article).

c. Form small groups for discussion. It may be best to have mixed groups (institution and sex) to add multiple perspectives.

Discuss the following:

1) If 56% of the hiring for people in professional, technical, and managerial workers was done through personal contact, what implication does this have for fair employment opportunities for women and minorities?

2) Does an "old boys' network" exist at your institution? If so, how does it operate? What are the administrative, academic, and social practices through which young males are groomed to move up the administrative ladder and become part of the "old boys"?

If you don't have an "old boys' network," how is your hiring done? Do you have equal numbers of women and men in all levels of employment?

3) How are openings in higher level administrative positions treated? Are they subjected to "open search" procedures and affirmative action or are these procedures just used for lower level positions? Do search committees, if appointed, make bona fide attempts to include women in final pools of candidates or are these largely examples of tokenism?

4) What is one creative/concrete idea as to how to help women and minorities obtain work in professional positions from which they have been largely excluded?

5) In what other ways besides hiring practices does the "old boys' network" influence career opportunities?

d. Summarize.

Alternate Strategy:

a. Explain goal and objective or strategy.

b. Have participants break into small mixed (sex and institution) groups and select a recorder.

c. Ask participants to view themselves as conspirators in the creation of a role play or description of a typical "old boys' network" complete with secrecy and implicitness--factors which limit career options for those outside and run counter to affirmative action programs. (Allow thirty minutes to complete this activity).

d. Ask reporters from small groups to share the elements of behaviors, attitudes, and practices (nonconscious and conscious) identified as part of the "old boys' network." Leader should summarize these elements on a blackboard or newsprint.

e. Have participants regroup by institution and look at their own institution in terms of their "old boys' network." They could consider questions such as "What is the composition by race and sex?" and the questions listed in the above activity.

Minimum Time Required: 60 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Blackboard or newsprint
Attached article: "Introduction" from Getting a Job (Granovetter, 1974)
References: Oppenheimer (1975); Hochschild (1975); Adler (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a short explanation of the "old boys' network" and its major implication for women, minorities, or others who have been outside of it.

EXCERPT FROM GETTING A JOB[*]

How people find jobs is a prosaic problem--but exactly for this reason, it relates closely to important issues in sociology and economics. Under the rubric "labor mobility" in economics, and "social mobility" in sociology, how people move between jobs and between occupations has received much study; but surprisingly little detailed attention has been given to the question of how individuals become *aware* of the opportunities they take. Most studies are either highly aggregated or highly individualized. At the macro level, excellent monographs detail the statistics of men flowing between categories (Blau and Duncan, 1967; Blumen et al., 1955; Carlsson, 1958); at the micro level, other studies offer plausible psychological and economic motives for particular individuals to *want* to change jobs (Kahl, 1953; Reynolds, 1951; Morse, 1953). Important as these concerns are, they are not those of the present study. Rather, I have chosen to concentrate on the issue of how the information that facilitates mobility is secured and disseminated. This question lies somewhere between the micro- and macro-level concerns described above, and is a potentially crucial link in their integration; it is an important part of the study of the *immediate* causes of mobility, and, as in other social science problems, failure to specify immediate causes leads to inability to link micro and macro levels of analysis.

How mobility information travels bears on general social theory as well. The scarcity of information available to those engaging in mobility is striking. Complete and systematic data on job opportunities is extremely hard to collect; even trained investigators with government grants encounter difficult obstacles (Dunlop, 1966; Ferber and Ford, 1965). Thus, a single individual operating with heavy constraints on his or her time and resources is likely to uncover only a small proportion of those openings he might plausibly fill at a given time. The use of mass media advertising and employment agencies does not substantially alter this situation.

Some have assumed that the advent of "modernization" leads to widespread use of formal and "universalistic" procedures, liberating individuals from the limitations once imposed by particular social milieus (for example, Sjoberg, 1960: 192). But empirical sociological studies continually demonstrate the crucial importance of informal interaction in systems that are formally rationalized (Selznick, 1949; Dalton, 1959; Crozier, 1964). The present study offers another example of this kind: the heavy dependence of individuals on their existing set of personal contacts for information about job-change opportunities. (If everyone found his or her job "through the *New York Times*," the subject would have little sociological interest!)

We can view this as an instance of the enormous, though often unnoticed, constraint placed on individuals by the social network in which they find themselves. A primary focus of my analysis will thus be the dynamics of information flow through such networks. In this regard, I will be pursuing

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[*] From: M.S. Granovetter, Getting a job (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1974) pp. 3-22. © 1974 by the President and Fellows of Harvard College.

the findings of earlier studies which indicated that information which leads to action is more likely to move through chains of personal contact than through mass media, or more impersonal routes (Katz, 1957; Coleman et al., 1966; Lee, 1969).

Connections with economic theory will also be probed. I must consider to what extent my findings can be explained by the usual tools of supply and demand and marginal principles of optimization. In neoclassical economics, employment is a central variable at both the micro and macro levels. But, as in the sociological analysis of mobility, the levels are not convincingly integrated. A given amount of aggregate demand is said to result in a certain level of employment; that is, when there is work to be done, it is assumed that people will be employed to do it (barring already full employment). *How* to make the connection between work that needs to be done and people who are willing to do it is not specified. When the mechanisms of a theory--the immediate causes--are neglected in this way, we are at a loss to understand what happens when predicted results fail to occur, as when blacks are unemployed in periods of high aggregate demand. Where possible, therefore, I will comment on the relevance of my findings for the economic theory of labor markets.

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Most of the literature in this area has been created by American labor economists motivated primarily, in many cases, by concern with either unemployment or labor shortages. They have focused on blue-collar workers. The common practice has been to divide methods of finding jobs into "formal" and "informal" ones. The "formal" category includes commercial and public employment agencies and advertisements. "Informal" methods include the use of personal contacts of any kind, and also direct application to an employer (or his personnel agent) not previously known personally to the job-seeker.

The blue-collar studies, carried out from the 1930's to the present in American cities of widely varying size, economic base, and market conditions, have been remarkably similar in their conclusions. All showed that formal mechanisms of job allocation rarely accounted for more than 20 percent of placements. By contrast, 60-90 percent of jobs were found informally, principally through friends and relatives but also by direct application. (See De Schweinetz, 1932; Edelman et al., 1952; Lester, 1954; Lurie and Rayack, 1968; Myers and Shultz, 1951; Myers and Maclaurin, 1943; Parnes, 1954; Reynolds, 1951; Sheppard and Belitsky, 1966; Ullman and Taylor, 1965; Wilcock and Franke, 1963; Wilcock and Sobel, 1958).

Only a few studies have investigated white-collar workers. Female clerical workers have been shown to use agencies and ads more often than blue-collar workers (of either sex), but still to rely more on informal methods than on any other kind (Shultz, 1962). Two studies of professionals, one of aerospace engineers and one of college professors, show little difference from the blue-collar studies in incidence of job-finding methods. In the engineering study (Shapero et al., 1965: 50), 68 percent found their jobs by informal means; 51 percent by personal acquaintances and 17 percent by direct application.[1] In Brown's massive study of college professors

(1965b; 1967), 84 percent used informal methods; 65 percent personal contacts, 19 percent direct application. Brown's conclusions are consistent with those of Caplow and McGee (1958); but exact comparison is not possible since they do not supply figures on proportions finding jobs by various methods.

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Nearly all of the above studies have been done from the point of view of economists whose underlying theoretical framework has thus been that of economic theory, with its emphasis on the concept of "labor markets," and the relation of wages to mobility.

The present study is conducted from a quite different point of view. Because, in the majority of cases, individuals hear about a new job via personal contacts, and not through general announcements of vacancies, an important sociological dimension can be introduced. The actual transmission of information about job opportunities becomes a more immediate condition of mobility than any characteristic of jobs themselves. No matter how great the "net advantage" to an individual in changing from his present position to some particular new one, he cannot move unless he secures the proper information. Should social conditions arise which block this flow of information between personal acquaintances, economic theory would be of little help in understanding the problem.

No study has gone much beyond the statement that information is secured from "friends and relatives." I will be concerned to specify more exactly the origin, nature, and maintenance of the interpersonal tie mediating the passage of information. This involves asking how and when the job-changer first came to know the person who ultimately supplied the necessary information, whether the tie was weak or strong, forged in work or in social situations, and in what ways the relationship was maintained between the time it began and the time that information was passed. I will also be interested in the circumstances under which information came to be passed, and how these "friends and relatives" happened to be in possession of the relevant information. Whether these aspects of job-changing depend systematically on characteristics of the job-changer or on general labor-market conditions will also be probed.

For a number of reasons, at the beginning of the study I decided to concentrate on professional, technical, and managerial workers. (For convenience, I shall refer to them hereafter as PTM workers.) It was, first of all, desirable to rule out social class as a confounding variable, while nevertheless choosing a fairly general sample. This stratum has been studied less than any other--I know of no other study offering information on a general random sample of such workers; moreover, I wanted to be able to see intensive and sophisticated attempts at job search. In view of the importance attached to their jobs by these people, I suspected that they would be the ones most likely to conduct such a search. (This assumption proved faulty; see Chapter 1.) Ruling out the effects of still another crucial variable, I limited my attention to males. Female career patterns are sufficiently different from those of males that a separate study would be necessary to do justice to them.

Having selected a stratum, I then needed a sampling location. I looked for a city or town which 1) was large enough to provide a reasonable-sized sample; 2) contained a high proportion of employed males in the specified category, so as to facilitate sampling; 3) was covered by a comprehensive (commercial) city directory listing job and place of work each year for each resident and 4) was close enough to Cambridge that I could do a substantial number of interviews myself. Newton, Massachusetts, a Boston suburb of some 98,000 inhabitants seemed the best choice.

I chose a sampling method in which I compared two consecutive city directories and took a random sample of those whose employer in the later edition was different from the one listed in the earlier. In addition, every person appearing in the new directory for the first time was included in the sample, and later dropped from consideration if he turned out not to have changed his job within the last five years. (The advantage of a sample with recent mobility experience was that of more accurate recall; this was especially important since I was to ask questions in great detail about not particularly memorable events.) Those who were taking their first job were included; those changing from one to another branch of the same company were excluded.

My goal was to interview 100 such individuals personally, and to collect a mail survey from 200 others. To this end, letters were sent to 457 potential respondents; this was a 45 percent random sample of all apparently eligible persons in Newton. The final yield was 100 personal interviews and 182 mail surveys. This represented response rates of 85.5 percent in the interview, and 79.1 percent in the mail survey, of all those who were ultimately found to be eligible.[2]

Every method, of course, introduces systematic distortions and it is best to be aware of what these are before evaluating results. Perhaps the most serious such distortion in the present work is that it was not practicable to interview respondents' employers. The value of conducting those interviews would lie not so much in checking the accuracy of the accounts given to me by respondents; while corroboration would be of some value, most of my questions could have been answered only by the job changer rather than the new employer. More important would be the account of what steps an employer had taken to fill the position in question, and how many prospects were considered. Comparison of how the employer was put in touch with unsuccessful candidates, to how he became linked with my respondent would be revealing. An economist would say that this study lays heavy emphasis on the supply side of the labor market, leaving out the demand process. While this shortcoming detracts from some ideal study, I do not think that it need vitiate the usefulness of the results presented here, which are more or less self-contained. Emphasis is on the sociological forces which make mobility opportunity available to individuals, rather than on how employers manage to fill vacant positions.

A second important bias is introduced by taking only individuals who have changed jobs within five years, rather than a general random sample of PTM workers. I adopted this strategy to facilitate memory of mobility experience, as mentioned above, and also to rule out variations caused by secular trends over the longer period that a general sample would have involved.

One would expect that a general sample, as compared to the present one, would be older, since younger men are more mobile, and therefore likely to be over-represented among recent movers. It may also be that recent movers are more adventurous than the general population of PTM workers. Arguments come to mind for their being either less competent or more competent, depending on the cause of their mobility. As a consequence of these or other differences, members of a general sample might show a somewhat different picture of the job-changing process. I, myself, doubt that the bias is a serious one, but in the absence of baseline comparative data, the reader must be warned to keep it in mind.

A third bias results from studying, here, only how the respondents secured information about the jobs that they *took*: this is clearly not the only information they receive about job vacancies, and it would be of particular interest to know more about whether there are systematic differences between how information that does and does not lead to a job change is secured. This is related to the second bias, in that men searching intensively for a new job, but not finding one to their liking during the specified five years, had no chance to be included in my sample. Some exploratory probing of my respondents convinced me, however, that I did not have the time or resources to carefully explore the problem of jobs not taken. Not the least of the problems involved was definition of what it means to say that a respondent has heard about a job that he might fill. While it is fairly clear what constitutes a hard job offer, there is a vast grey area consisting of opportunities that might or might not become hard offers depending on the actions of respondent, employer, and other interested parties. If the reader tries to write down a list of the jobs that might have been available to him during the past year, he will quickly see the difficulties involved.

A last bias is introduced by confining the study to change of *employer*: I have excluded job changes in the labor market internal to firms. Economists have made widely varying estimates of the significance of such markets. In a recent article, Dunlop remarks that for the "typical enterprise, hiring-in jobs are only a small fraction of the total number of job classifications" (1966: 32; also see Lester, 1954. 32-34). Palmer, however, offers data suggesting that the proportion of job changes occurring *without* change of employer is less than 10 percent of all job changes (1954: 51, 124). Her data is from the 1940's, and is thus especially interesting in view of Reynolds' idea that internal promotions are more likely in tight labor markets,[3] as in the 1940's (Reynolds, 1951: 144).

In compiling my sample, the number of cases I had to exclude because they involved mobility internal to a firm was much less than 10 percent. Changes of employer are far easier to detect than changes of "job" within a firm; no one's job is quite the same one day as the next, particularly in the case of PTM workers. This measurement difficulty may account for much of the apparent discrepancy between expected and observed mobility *within* firms. It would have been beyond my scope to resolve these difficulties in this study; moreover, job change in internal markets presents a somewhat different set of substantive issues than in external ones. Thus, in what follows, "job change" or "mobility" may be taken to be synonymous with "change of employer." *Nothing else is implied.* As personal interviews were more detailed than mail surveys, some tables in the text will be based only on the 100 interviews, others on the entire sample of 282. Data from a pilot study are not included in tables, but some anecdotal material is drawn from this source; these cases are clearly indicated. Levels of significance indicated in the tables are based on the chi-square statistic.

FINDING WORK: SOME BASIC RESULTS

PTM workers use three basic ways of finding out about jobs: formal means, personal contacts, and direct application. Included under "formal means" are advertisements, public and private employment agencies (including those calling themselves "management consultants" or "executive search services"), interviews and placements sponsored by universities or professional associations, and placement committees in certain professions, notably in various ministries. The defining characteristic of formal means is that the job-seeker uses the services of an impersonal intermediary, between himself and prospective employers. By "impersonal" is meant either the lack of any personal contact (as in newspaper advertising), or use of an individual, who is specifically designated by himself or others, as an employment intermediary. "Personal contacts," by contrast, implies that there is some individual known personally to the respondent, with whom he *originally* became acquainted in some context *unrelated* to a search for job information, from whom he has found out about his new job, or, who recommended him to someone who then contacted him. "Direct application" means that one goes or writes directly to a firm, does not use a formal or personal intermediary, and has not heard about a *specific* opening from a personal contact.[4] Although the three methods are distinct, in principle, and pure cases outnumber others, the differences may become blurred in specific instances. Further discussion of the coding problem involved may be found in Appendix B.

In the present PTM sample, personal contact is the predominant method of finding out about jobs. Almost fifty-six percent of the respondents used this method; 18.8 percent used formal means (9.9 percent advertisements, 8.9 percent other formal means) and 18.8 percent used direct application; 6.7 percent fell into miscellaneous categories (including "not ascertained"). If one takes into account the usual over-estimation of the use of "direct application" (see Appendix B for further discussion), these figures are remarkably similar to those generally found for blue-collar workers.

We must now ask, in some detail, why a given individual uses one method rather than another to find a job. Other methods may have been used, of course, besides the one that ultimately resulted in a job change. Hence, we have, to some extent, not only a question of propensity to use a method, but also one of why the respondent was able to do so successfully.

Most respondents prefer the use of personal contacts to other means. Other labor market studies indicate that employers express a similar preference for hiring methods. It follows that external economic conditions have less influence than might be supposed on the methods that connect people to jobs. In tight labor markets, employers are forced to use less preferred methods; but this is largely cancelled by the lower motivation of job-seekers or job-changers to do so. The opposite may be said of loose labor markets. Thus, studies done under various economic conditions have shown similar distributions of job-finding methods. (The statement about "cancelling" is crude, however, and ought to be subjected to more systematic investigation.)

As a first approximation, we may suppose that preferences for different methods are determined by some sort of cost-benefit analysis of job-search procedures by prospective job-changers. This is only an approximation because, as discussed in detail in Chapter 1, the image of the job-changer as conducting a search according to rational, utility-maximizing principles needs considerable modification.

Nevertheless, the preference described above *is* roughly justified by respondents on a cost-benefit basis; findings from various other studies support their judgment. Sheppard and Belitsky, for instance, for a mostly blue-collar sample, computed the proportion of those using a given method who obtained jobs through it. They found that "friends and relatives" received by far the highest rating (1966: 94). Brown, for each method used by his respondents, college professors, computed the number of jobs accepted as a proportion of the number of jobs found by that method; this is presumably a measure of the desirability of jobs found in various ways. The top five methods on this measure were different types of personal contact (1967: 141). In addition, he reported more use of personal contacts in the finding of jobs of higher rank, smaller teaching loads, higher salaries, and greater prestige of college (1965b: 227; 1967: 118). Next in quality of job produced was direct application ("blind letters" in most cases), followed by the various formal methods (1965b: 241).

The PTM workers to whom I spoke believed that information secured through personal contacts is of higher quality than that available by other means; a friend gives more than a simple job-description--he may also indicate if prospective workmates are congenial, if the boss is neurotic, and if the company is moving forward or is stagnant. (Similarly, on the demand side, evaluations of prospective employees will be trusted better when the employer knows the evaluator personally.)

Various measures of the quality of jobs held by my respondents substantiate their idea that better jobs are found via personal contacts. Table 1 shows that those using personal contacts are most likely to say that they are "very satisfied" with their current job, and least likely not to express satisfaction; direct application and formal means follow, in that order. Table 2 shows the strong association of income level with job-finding method. Nearly half (45.5 percent) of those using personal contacts report incomes over $15,000, whereas the corresponding figure for formal means is under one-third; for direct application, under one-fifth.

Jobs can also be classified by the nature of their creation. In some cases one directly replaces someone who has vacated a position; or an individual may be added on to do work similar to that which others are already doing. New positions may also be created: work may be done that has not been done before, or previously scattered tasks can be put together into one job. It seems likely that the most desirable positions would be found in the category of "newly created" jobs, since these would be most apt to have been tailored to the needs, preferences, and abilities of an incumbent. Table 3

Table 1. Level of job satisfaction attained by job-finding method of respondent

Level of satisfaction	Method used: Formal means	Personal contacts	Direct application	Other	Total[d]
Very satisfied	30.0%	54.2%	52.8%	47.1%	49.1%
Fairly satisfied	46.0%	36.8%	32.1%	47.1%	38.2%
Lower[a]	24.0%	9.0%	15.1%	5.9%	12.7%
N[b]	50	155	53	17	275
		$p = 0.03$[c]			

[a] Includes "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied," "fairly dissatisfied," and "very dissatisfied."

[b] Two-variable tables add to 100 percent in the columns. Rather than printing "100 percent" in each case, the number of cases on which column percentages are based is given.

[c] All significance levels are by chi-square test.

[d] Omitted from this and subsequent tables are respondents from whom a usable response was not obtained on any variable in the table.

Table 2. Level of income of respondent in present job, by job-finding method used

Income	Method used: Formal means	Personal contacts	Direct application	Other	Total
Less than $10,000	28.0%	22.7%	50.0%	5.3%	27.6%
$10,000-14,999	42.0%	31.8%	30.8%	26.3%	33.1%
$15,000-24,999	24.0%	31.2%	15.4%	52.6%	28.4%
$25,000 or more	6.0%	14.3%	3.8%	15.8%	10.9%
N	50	154	52	19	275
		$p = 0.001$			

Table 3. Origin of job, by job-finding method of respondent

	Method used				
Origin of job	Formal means	Personal contacts	Direct application	Other	Total
Direct replacement	47.1%	40.5%	58.0%	38.9%	44.9%
Added on	31.4%	15.7%	18.0%	27.8%	19.9%
Newly created	21.6%	43.8%	24.0%	33.3%	35.3%
N	51	153	50	18	272
		$p = 0.02$			

shows that those finding a job through contacts are much more likely than those using formal means or direct application, to have had jobs newly created for them.

By taking the percentages on these tables in the opposite direction, we may view the same findings from the point of view of the system of jobs. Results are parellel: The more satisfied individuals are in their jobs, the more likely they are to have found them through contacts. Jobs offering the highest salary are much more prone to be found through contacts than others: whereas less than half of jobs yielding less than $10,000 per year were found by contacts, the figure is more than three-quarters for those paying more than $25,000. The use of direct application falls steadily as the salary of a job rises; the use of formal methods is somewhat less regular in pattern, though least likely at the highest salary. Finally, newly created jobs are much more likely to be filled via personal contacts than are other types, and are least likely to be filled by direct application or formal means.

A related finding is that 57.9 percent of those who say they have recently thought about looking for another job found their present job through contacts, compared to 72.1 percent of those who have not considered changing ($p = 0.09$). This is parallel to the finding of Shapero et al. for aerospace engineers, that those recently leaving their company were considerably less likely to have entered via contacts than those who remained (1965: 50). Discussions of labor force "attachment" would do well to consider method of recruitment. The fact that "stayers" are more likely to have been recruited through contacts than "movers" may result only from the fact that better jobs are found in this way. It may also be true, however, that the man who is thus recruited is more likely to become quickly integrated into the social circles of his workplace, having an entree in the person of his contact. The data of the present study are too limited to allow a choice between the two hypotheses.

To sum up, evidence is strong that the use of personal contacts by my respondents results in better jobs than other methods. A number of respondents even had the odd experience of being refused a job for which they applied directly, only to be accepted later for the same job through personal contacts. One postdoctoral student in biology received a letter from an institution to which he had applied for a job, saying that there were "no openings for an individual with your qualifications." But when his thesis adviser took a position there, the younger man went along as a research associate; he subsequently received an effusive letter expressing the college's delight at his appointment. An assistant professor of psychology tells a similar story; his inquiry about the position he now holds was never answered. But several months later, he received a call from someone he had once worked with, asking him if he would be interested in the position. The friend was unaware of his previous inquiry.

Since respondents prefer to find jobs through personal contacts, and this preference appears well-grounded, we must then ask why everyone did not do so. Here the influence of social structure must be probed. Some individuals have the right contacts, while others do not. If one lacks the appropriate contact, there is little he can do about it. While this is obvious enough, it is a difficult question, and a major focus of this study, to determine under what circumstances a given individual *will* have such contacts.

We may begin by asking whether groups with particular demographic characteristics are more or less prone to the use of certain methods. In this context, the standard sociological variables of religion, ethnicity, and educational background come to mind. Several studies have compared the behavior of black and white (usually blue-collar) workers; some found that blacks used formal means more than whites, others that they used them less often (Crain, 1970; Lurie and Rayack, 1966: 369; Sheppard and Belitsky, 1966: 174, 178; Ullman and Taylor, 1965: 283; Wilcock and Franke, 1963: 130). A recent national survey of 14- to 24-year-old males found no racial differences in search behavior (Parnes et al., 1970: 102-104). In the present PTM sample, Table 4 shows that religious background had no particular impact on likelihood of using a given method. Similarly uninteresting tables could be produced showing that ethnic background and educational level attained have no relation to incidence of these methods. (As the present sample is over 99 percent white, no data on racial differences are produced).

This finding may be surprising insofar as one expects differences in cultural background and personality traits to have an impact on behavior. Sheppard and Belitsky (1966) explicitly tested, for example, the notion that one's degree of "achievement motivation" would affect job-seeking behavior. While they did find some effects in predicted directions, these were rather weak. I will argue, in general, that a much more important type of determinant of one's behavior is one's position in a social network. By this is meant not only the identity of the set of people one knows and his relations to them but also the set known by that set, and so on, as well as the structure of connections among one's friends, friends' friends, and so on. The structure and dynamics of this network, though elusive and difficult to analyze, largely determine what information will reach a given person, and, to that extent, what possibilities will be open to him.

This is not to argue that culture and personality have no impact on one's position in this structure; only that the impact is not systematic or predictable. Nor is it my argument that people make no choices. Individuals

Table 4. Job-finding method, by religious background of respondent

Method used	Religious background Protestant	Catholic	Jewish	None[b]	Total
Formal means	15.4%	16.9%	19.2%	16.7%	17.3%
Personal contact	55.1%	56.6%	57.6%	66.7%	56.8%
Direct application	23.1%	20.5%	16.2%	0.0%	19.2%
Other	6.4%	6.0%	7.1%	16.7%	6.8%
N	78	83	99	6	266
		p = n.s.[a]			

[a] Significance levels of 0.20 or less are reported; otherwise n.s. (= not significant) is indicated.

[b] Those responding "none" to religious preference were assigned to the religious preference of their parents, if any; where both respondents' and parents' preference are reported as none, the respondents' religious background is coded none.

clearly do not seize every job offer that reaches them; cultural and personality factors no doubt have their impact on which job one chooses to accept. A separate study would be required to do justice to this issue. The point is that if we confine ourselves to looking at jobs that people *do* accept, however the choice is made, structural factors have the largest influence on the method of uncovering those jobs. By "structural factors" I mean the properties of one's social situation that shape his contact network; one typically has little control over these factors.

An example is the effect of age. Blue-collar studies have uniformly shown that personal contacts are particularly important to individuals in the early stages of their career--especially in finding one's first job (De Schweinetz, 1932: 87, 93; Reynolds, 1951: 127). In the Newton sample, the finding is reversed: Table 5 shows that those in the younger half of the sample are considerably more likely to use formal means and direct application, while nearly two-thirds of the older PTM workers find their jobs through personal contacts.[6]

This appears to be due to the greater specialization inherent in PTM occupations; not yet having worked long in the specialized field he has been trained for, the young PTM worker will have acquired few useful contacts. He must thus fall back on formal means and direct application. In the blue-collar case, however, less specialization combined with less geographic

Table 5. Job-finding method, by age of respondent

Method used	Age		
	Under 34	Over 34	Total
Formal means	25.3%	11.9%	18.9%
Personal contacts	47.9%	64.2%	55.7%
Direct application	22.6%	14.9%	18.9%
Other	4.1%	9.0%	6.4%
N	146	134	280
	$p = 0.002$		

mobility make it more likely that some older friend or relative can help the young worker. In their national sample of white, out-of-school youth, aged 14-24, Parnes et al. (1970: 104) similarly found that the proportion using "friends and relatives" to find their job is smallest for professional and technical work, increasing steadily to a maximum for semi- and unskilled workers.

Still another structural factor appears if we break the PTM group into its three constituent types of occupation; the results are shown in Table 6. Technical workers are least likely to use personal contacts, and most likely to use formal means and direct application. There are a particularly large number of agencies specializing in technical personnel, which makes it possible to use this route more often than for either professionals or managers; direct application may also be enhanced by the size and consequent wide reputations of many firms which hire technical personnel. Another factor is more subtle, and more structural; whereas scientists and technicians may work alone or in small groups, managers, by definition, must spend a great deal of time in personal interaction. In the course of a manager's career, many more personal contacts may be established than in that of a scientist; such contacts may later be useful.[6]

Individual cases also illustrate the impact of structural factors. One respondent was an engineer, blinded about seven years ago. Unable to maintain as many contacts as formerly, he found it necessary to seek work by formal means. A recent immigrant, though an experienced scientist in Japan, knew very few people in his field in this country, and so, from the point of view of contacts, was just "starting out."

In general, then, Brown's statement about the job-seeking behavior of college professors applies to the present overall PTM sample: "Formal methods [including direct application] are used only after informal contacts have failed to yield a good job" (1967: 117). Those who resort to these methods tend to be those who, for more or less structural reasons, lack the right

Table 6. Job-finding method, by occupational category of respondent

Method used	Occupation			
	Professional	Technical[a]	Managerial	Total
Formal means	15.9%	30.4%	13.6%	18.8%
Personal contacts	56.1%	43.5%	65.4%	55.7%
Direct application	18.2%	24.6%	14.8%	18.8%
Other	9.8%	1.4%	6.2%	6.7%
N	132	69	81	282
		p = 0.01		

[a] Includes all technical, engineering, and scientific workers except college professors or high school teachers of science.

personal contacts. There are, however, some positive reasons to use formal means:

> Case # 1: Albert W. was working for a large engineering firm, but was dissatisfied. He had personal contacts who could have been useful but did not trust them enough to tell them he was looking for a new job; he therefore went to an agency specializing in technical personnel.[7]

Mr. W. was rather bitter about his experience, however. He reports that the agency scheduled him for interviews in the same room as personnel managers from his company, who would have recognized him and realized why he was there; he covered his face and hurried from the room. He cites this obvious blunder as an example of the utter impersonality of such agencies, which makes them distasteful to deal with. Many of those who had used agencies had similar attitudes. A ghoulish set of terms reflects their evaluation of such services and those who run them: "head-hunters"; "body-snatchers"; "flesh-peddlers"; "warm-body shops."

The appointment of Jewish Conservative rabbis, brought to my attention by one respondent, is an interesting case; formal means were instituted by centralized control for ideological reasons. Before 1947, congregations seeking a rabbi, and rabbis seeking congregations operated by the three methods described above. The situation came to be viewed as intolerable, as congregations considered most desirable found themselves with thirty or forty applicants; those thought less attractive had few or none. (The market was a tight one at the time.) Rabbis found themselves in "lineups" of applicants for interviews; a congregation that had an advantageous bargaining position could bid down the salary asked. Personal connections with members of the boards of trustees were of considerable importance.

All this was considered undignified for clergymen. In 1947-48, the Rabbinical Assembly, central administrative body of the Conservative Jewish movement, asserted control over placement of all Conservative rabbis. This was possible since all such rabbis were members. A placement committee now sends each congregation looking for a rabbi a list of three names, a "panel," from whom they may either choose one, after interviews, or ask for another panel. The committee chooses these names from among those rabbis who, upon receiving the list of vacancies circulated periodically, express interest. The process continues until a rabbi is chosen. Rabbis or congregations attempting to circumvent this system are subject to effective sanctions. There appear now to be few or no exceptions to this method of placement.[8] Its success recently stimulated the Reform Jewish movement to adopt a similar system.

In effect, this action approximated the creation of an internal labor market; individuals transfer from one congregation to another as if from one branch to another of the same firm. It is unlikely that the degree of central control necessary to implement such a system could be duplicated in larger, nonreligious groups. There are, at present, less than 100 Conservative rabbis.

* * *

In this introduction, then, the basic theme has been set: personal contacts are of paramount importance in connecting people with jobs. Better jobs are found through contacts, and the best jobs, the ones with the highest pay and prestige and affording the greatest satisfaction to those in them, are most apt to be filled in this way. With a few interesting exceptions, those who do not find their jobs through personal contacts, would have liked to do so, but were prevented by "structural" factors. A few such factors were briefly sketched in this chapter, but for a deeper understanding it is necessary to ask more detailed questions about how people "use" personal contacts. Who are these "contacts" that play such a crucial role in filling the most coveted positions in our economic and social structure--what relation do they hold to respondents, and what relation to the jobs they channel respondents into? Under what circumstances does information about these jobs come to be passed? On whose initiative? These are the questions to which Part One is devoted.

NOTES

1. Unlike most authors, Brown classifies direct application as a "formal" method. I discuss the ambiguity of the "formal-informal" distinction on page 9.

2. My sampling method is basically adapted from that of Reynolds (1951). A detailed account of sampling, consistency comparisons between interview and mail sample, and representativeness of the Newton population can be found in Appendix A.

NOTES (continued)

3. In this study, I follow the usual convention in designating as "tight" labor markets those in which more vacancies exist than men to fill them; the opposite situation (surplus of men) is called a "loose market."

4. Direct application has, in other studies, sometimes been included, with personal contacts, in the category "informal" methods; since the use of the expression "informal" has no particular logic to it, and has served only as a negative, residual category, I have dropped it here. Direct application could just as easily be called a "formal" method, as in Brown (1967). In fact, it is different from both formal methods and from the use of personal contacts; hence the three-way classification.

5. At this point, the reader might properly wonder if the earlier finding, that those using contacts find higher-paying jobs, is merely an artifact of the over-representation of older PTM workers among those using contacts. This is not the case. Controlling for age, the relationship persists within each age group. Similarly, within each age group, the higher the salary, the more likely one was to have used contacts. Among those in the older half of the sample, over 80 percent of those earning $25,000 or more per year found the job through contacts.

6. The figure for professionals must be treated with caution since 58 of the 132 professionals (43.8 percent) are college professors, an atypical situation related to the larger number of colleges in the Boston area. College professors are much more likely than other professionals to find jobs through contacts: 77.6 percent do so, as compared to 54.5 percent of high school teachers and 32.7 percent of other professionals. Although older respondents and those with higher incomes are over-represented among professors, this does not explain the strong disposition to use of contacts, as the older and higher-income respondents *among* professors are not more likely than the younger and lower-income ones to use contacts--they are, actually, a little *less* likely, though one cannot take relationships seriously based on such small numbers. Note that this implies that if professors were less prominent in the sample, the general tendency for older and higher income respondents to be more likely to use contacts would be even stronger.

7. Anecdotal material in this study has been modified as necessary to protect the anonymity of respondents. Besides the use of fictitious names, this sometimes involves changing industry names and job titles.

8. Information on this placement procedure was secured through the courtesy of a personal interview with Rabbi Gilbert Epstein, Director of Placement, Jewish Theological Seminary, New York City.

"Impact of Social Policy"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

C. Objective: Cite implications of current employment practices for affirmative action programs.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Most people are not aware of the extent to which government social policy decisions affect equal opportunity for women and men. This strategy is to raise awareness of this fact as well as stimulate reflection on the value issues involved.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass out copies of "None of This Is Anti-Feminist" and ask participants to read it. At some point, be sure to call attention to the date--March 1977.

c. Discuss in large group (or in small groups) the following questions:

1) What are the main points of the article?
2) What were your overall reactions to the article? What did you agree and disagree with?
3) Who are the secondary workers who "could take the poorer paid jobs"?
4) Is it just an oversight that the speaker talks about encouraging women who are single parents to remarry but doesn't mention men who are single parents?
5) Do you think social policy related to employment practices should determine that wages and jobs be based on need, e.g., that families which need more income should receive first chance at jobs?

(This, of course, has been an assumption that has been applied only to women as a group; i.e., it has been assumed that women as a group don't need an income because their husbands will support them. This is an assumption based, of course, on a middle-class perspective.)

6) If one believes, as the memo writer does, that in most cases it is important to provide the male head of the family with the opportunity to work, what are the implications for recent fair employment laws and policies for women of all races?

7) Besides employment, how are other kinds of social policy areas (e.g., credit, social security, pensions) affected by the policy the memo writer proposes? How does the social policy affect women differently depending on their race?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "None of This Is Anti-Feminist" (1977)

Reference: Safilios-Rothschild (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify and explain three implications for women of the social policy the writer proposes.

From a March, 1977 internal Labor Department memo on welfare reform from Arnold Packer, Assistant Secretary for Policy Evaluation and Research, to Secretary F. Ray Marshall (emphases added):

*"NONE OF THIS IS ANTI-FEMINIST"**

"...One can think of the traditional American family structure with two parents and children in which the family head goes out to work and makes enough of a living to keep the family together. *The major thrust of any program ought to be to support this as the predominant situation for Americans.* Secondly, for families in which there are small children and only one parent, there should be enough support for those families to live a dignified life. *The incentives should be arranged so that individuals prefer the two-parent arrangement. The earnings at work should be sufficiently greater than the dole on welfare to encourage families to stay together or to encourage women who are single parents to remarry.* Meeting these objectives means providing jobs and/or training to family heads who are unemployed and earning subsidies to working poor families.

"...*Although many persons do work for very low wages, the greater portion of these workers do not have family responsibilities.* Moreover, secondary workers are coming into the labor force at a rapid rate and these could take the poorer paid jobs that are left open as family heads move on to better positions. We are looking at the data now and hope to be able to support that statement with some facts.

"...Economists are not accustomed to differentiating among people on the basis of family responsibilities. According to the theory, individual wages should equal their marginal product and should not be based upon need. The significance of the family itself has no place in the traditional theory. *But the family may be the most important institution in the country.* While policy should not strive to keep bad marriages together, it should strive to provide an economic foundation families can depend on. Therefore, it seems especially important that family heads be given the opportunity to have a decent job.

"The policy conclusion is to target the public service jobs on families and not on individuals. None of this is anti-feminist. It could be the woman in the family who takes the job. Moreover, job availability provides enough financial independence for a woman to leave a bad marriage situation and know that she can make a living on her own. *But for most cases, it is important to provide the male head of the family with the opportunity to work."*

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*From: "None of This Is Anti-feminist," The Spokeswoman, July 15, 1977, 8, p. 10. Copyright Women's Washington Representative, 854 National Press Bldg., Washington, D.C. 20045. Reprinted with permission.

"Psychosocial Visit"

II. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

C. **Objective**: Cite implications of current employment practices for affirmative action programs,

3. **Learning Strategy**:

Note to Leader:

A psychosocial visit provides participants with an opportunity to check out their learning experiences and concepts in the business and industrial community. This activity should be included later in the training sequence as it requires some background knowledge in career-related sex-role stereotyping. It is a powerful exercise.

Leaders should accumulate lists of businesses and contact persons for use in this strategy. Usually, phone calls, letters, or person-to-person meetings will be adequate to assess the potential benefits participants will receive from visiting a certain business or industry. Find out what people you'll be permitted to talk with on the visit.

Leaders and participants should be aware of possible caution on the part of businesses. Many organizations are reluctant to give out information in the area of career-related sex-role stereotyping due to their fear of legal action. All contacts--leaders and participants--should stress the educational purpose of the visit and assure the business or industry representative of confidentiality.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy (the psychological and sociological aspects of our social world).

b. Ask participants to make a psychosocial visit to a business, industry, or company. They may use the guidelines attached ("Guidelines for Psychosocial Visit to Business or Industry") or develop their own questions. Skimming some of the vignettes in Studs Terkel's *Working* may also be useful in developing the interview format and in anticipating what to expect prior to the visit.

c. The interview(s) may focus on the business as a whole (e.g., general organization, status of women and minorities, opportunities for career development); or on the perspectives of employees and how they view their own position in the company as well as their own career history, future goals, and sex-role socialization; or the interviews may try to do both (organization as a whole and individual employees' perspectives).

d. Participants could then conduct panel discussions of their findings, analysis, and feelings.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required:

In class: 1/2 hour for leader's explanation and questions
Outside class: 1 1/2 to 4 hours
In class: Allow 15-20 minutes per panel discussion

Resources Needed:

Handouts: Copies of "Guidelines for Psychosocial Visit to Business or Industry" for all participants

Outcome Criterion:

Through presentation of findings and reactions in panel discussions, participants will demonstrate awareness of opportunities for and limits on career development of women and men in the business/industry sector.

GUIDELINES FOR

PSYCHOSOCIAL VISIT TO BUSINESS OR INDUSTRY

The questions listed below are intended to serve as a guide for a visit to a business or industry in which you focus on some of the psychosocial aspects of work in relation to sex roles and career development.

By "psychosocial" we mean sociological factors (how the company is organized, number of employees, etc.) as well as psychological factors (psychological impact of the work organization on the worker, the workers themselves, their feelings about their jobs) rather than factors related to the product or service provided by the business.

You are then to prepare your findings to present to the class. In your presentation you should include: a) your observations and b) your reactions (analysis and feelings) to the business and industry.

Since some companies are fearful of discrimination suits, any questions about women or minorities may appear threatening to them. Therefore, it might be important to emphasize that the information is to be used solely for educational purposes in a workshop.

Note: The questions which follow are intended as suggestions for you when you develop your interview format. You do not have to use them all. In fact, it would be impossible to cover all of these in a single half-day visit. If there is a group of visitors, questions can be divided up.

QUESTIONS FOR THE BUSINESS AS A WHOLE

Purpose

1. What is the main purpose, function, and product or service of the business or industry? Has this always been true? Is it expected to change?

Organization

1. What is the general staff organization?

2. How many employees are in the company? What percent are males and females? What percent are minority females and males? What percent are physically disabled?

   What is the age range and average age?

   What is the length of time of employment for the average person in the company?

3. What kinds of levels are represented (entry, mid-level, top)? What kinds of occupations are represented?
   How are the females, males, and minorities distributed throughout the various levels and various kinds of jobs? (Collect percentage data for each if you can.)

4. How democratic or authoritarian is the organization? To what extent are workers at all levels involved in decision making? Is extent of involvement different for women and minorities? Are there any differences in women and minorities in their preference for decision-making modes? (For example, one administrator said that since he has hired more women, he has been forced to become more democratic.)

5. What are the communication patterns? Is information disseminated to all or to only a few? How is information disseminated?

6. Is the plant unionized? What impact does the union have? Has the union been supportive of women and minorities? If so, how?

Hiring and Promotion

1. What kinds of training and/or education are required for the jobs represented?

2. What is the company doing to achieve equal opportunity for minorities and women? Are there special training programs for women and minorities? If so, have they been successful or not? What are the ingredients involved in the success or failure?

3. Who does the hiring? Are there stated policies on hiring practices? Are search committees used? Where are the positions advertised? Who makes the final decision on hiring a person?

4. What are the criteria for promotion? Are there stated policies? Is an attempt made to give equal opportunity to minorities and women in promotion?

5. Are there "job enrichment" or career ladder programs? If so, what are they? Is there a particular effort made to direct these to the needs of women and minorities?

6. Are there some jobs that are considered more appropriate for women than men and vice versa? Are there some jobs that are considered more appropriate for minority women than minority men and vice versa?

Climate

1. What do the tone and morale appear to be like in the company?

2. Are feelings about women and minorities polarized or is there a cooperative spirit? Do males fear or resent competition from women? Do women resent men because they (the women) feel discriminated against? Is race an issue?

   If the answers require a company response, is the company doing anything about it?

3. Are the women aware of discrimination? If so, how do they feel about it?

Management Concerns

1. What are some of the main concerns of management? (Productivity, equal employment, hiring "qualified" persons, turnover, burden of government regulations regarding affirmative action, etc.)

   What is management doing to respond to its concerns?

2. How could business, industry, labor, and schools and colleges work together to promote broader career options?

Affirmative Action

1. Does the company have an affirmative action policy? If so, what is it?

2. How does management feel about affirmative action? How do employees feel about affirmative action?

3. Is there serious support from the top levels for affirmative action?

4. If they have affirmative action, how successful do they think it has been?

5. Is eliminating sex bias a priority over eliminating race bias or vice versa? Or is there equal emphasis on both?

6. Are there any awareness programs to sensitize all employees to factors involved in opening up career options? If there are such programs, what are the goals and components?

QUESTIONS FOR EMPLOYEES AND THEIR WORK

Position

1. What is your present position?

2. What kinds of education and/or training were required for that position?

3. What are the most highly developed skills required in your job? How did you acquire them?

4. What aspects of your education or training have you used or not used? What aspects were necessary for getting the job but not used? What would you do differently in school or training if you were going to do it again?

   From whom did you get help in planning or preparing for this field? Were women and men equally helpful?

   What kinds of pressures have you faced in getting to this point? What kinds of help? What have been the most significant influences (positive and negative) in your career planning (people, experiences, events)?

5. What is the biggest responsibility you have? What are the most important decisions you are required to make? What is an example of the worst consequences of your making a wrong decision? How much pressure did this put you under? If you had been born the other sex, do you think you would have handled this differently? Would the decisions you were required to make have been different?

6. Is your salary comparable to that of individuals in other occupations with the same educational requirements, skills, responsibility? Is your salary comparable to that of women, men, minorities in occupations with the same educational requirements, skills, responsibility?

7. How typical is your job here to that of others working in the same vocation elsewhere?

Life Style Associated with Job

1. What kind of life style is associated with this job? Is much travel required during the first few years? Later years? Is there a lot of pressure? Are there frequent relocations? Other areas: overtime, evening work, time for leisure, set hours, own boss, etc.

   If you were the other sex, would these affect you differently?

2. What proportion of your time on the job is actually spent in what kinds of activities? If you were the other sex, do you think it would be different?

Satisfaction

1. How satisfied are you with your vocation? With your particular job here? How important is your job to you in terms of total satisfaction with life? Would you enter the same vocation again? If you had been born the other sex, do you think you would have chosen this vocation?

2. What aspects of your job provide you with the most satisfaction? The least? Do you think it would have been different if you had been born the other sex? Another race?

Marital Status

1. Has your marital status affected your position or your satisfaction with it? If so, how?

2. If married, how do you see your marriage and work fitting together? What are the satisfactions, dissatisfactions? Are there difficulties you encounter? If so, what are they? What would make it easier or prevent the difficulties?

Goals

1. What was your first job in your career? What other jobs have you held? Would it have been different if you had been the other sex? Another race? Physically disabled?

2. To what extent does your present position offer the kind of thing you really like to do? Where do you hope to be five or ten years from now? Twenty years? What do you think will be most helpful in assisting you in getting there? What will be the greatest obstacles?

3. How many who started where you did have made it to where you are now? What happened to those who didn't make it to where you are?

4. Referring to number 2 above, what proportion of the individuals at your level now will make it to that point ten or twenty years from now? What will happen to the ones who don't? Would your answer be different for people of the other sex or another race?

5. What are the major decisions facing you at this point in your life? Would the decisions be different if you were the other sex? Another race? Disabled?

6. Are you concerned about balancing job and family responsibilities? If so, to what extent does your company facilitate or hinder that?

7. Do you see this work as a lifelong one or as a stepping-stone to some other job or occupation?

Advancement and Promotion

1. What are the opportunities for advancement on this job or in this company?

2. What does it take to advance in your field? Additional education? Socializing? Politicking? Is race, sex, income level, or marital status a factor?

3. Are you seeking advancement? If so, what steps are you taking toward that?

4. How easy or difficult would it be for you to get a similar job in another business, industry, or setting?

Discrimination

1. Do women and minority men and women have an equal chance to enter your field? To get ahead? What about people who are physically disabled?

2. Have you felt any discrimination because of your sex or race? If so, describe. Do you think the organization is making serious efforts in affirmative action? If so, what have they done?

"Reviewing the Literature"

II. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE CURRENT MYTHS ABOUT SEX DIFFERENCES AND OCCUPATIONAL STEREOTYPING AND ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE OF THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DISPEL THEM.

D. Objective: Examine psychological and environmental factors which influence or are related to career options.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

One of the questions we are asking in Project BORN FREE is, "What do we really know about career socialization and the ways attitudes about sex roles influence career decisions of women and men?" The BORN FREE review of literature should be read by the leader as preparation for using this activity. In this review, the Kutner and Brogan (p. 8) and Parsons, Frieze, and Ruble (p. 10) conceptual models could be made into overheads and would be helpful for discussion.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Pass out copies of "Summary of Postsecondary/Higher Education Literature Review" for participants to read. Be sure to point out the limitations of the literature in this area, as well as the limitations of reading only summaries of the studies and concepts.

Findings in the following areas are identified as major areas related to career development:

1) Self-Concept/Self-Esteem
2) Locus of Control
3) Fear of Success
4) Expectancies
5) Attribution of Causes for Success and Failure
6) Occupational Opportunities and Sex-Role Socialization

c. Suggested discussion questions are:

1) How does each of these variables affect career development, socialization or decision making?
2) How much can we say that we really know about these variables and their influence on career development in higher education?
3) What do Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) conclude in their major study of research on sex differences?
4) In what ways does Block (1976) find that their conclusions are debatable?
5) What institutional barriers are identified which limit the career development of the female college student in particular?
6) What kinds of programs and activities are being created to reduce the barriers?

d. Summarize

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Summary of Postsecondary/Higher Education Literature Review" in the introductory section of this packet; see section X
Attached Articles: "Debatable Conclusions about Sex Differences (Block, 1976) (see II.A.1.)
"Myth, Reality, and Shades of Glory" (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974) (see II.A.1.)
References: Follet, Watt, & Hansen (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

After reading and discussing the literature review participants will identify the major variables and their implications for career decision making.

Goal III

PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Recognize facilitating and inhibiting effects which being a woman or man has had on each participant's career development.

   1. Magic Seminar

   2. Facilitators and Inhibitors

   3. Are Females Persons?

B. Recognize other persons--parents, siblings, friends, peers, teachers, counselors, etc.--who had a facilitating or inhibiting influence on participants' own lives and career decisions.

   1. Occupational Family Tree

   2. Parenting: Three Generations (Videotape)

   3. Parents as Influencers (Videotape)

C. Recognize various decision points in one's career development and one's own responsibility in the career development process.

   1. Deciding: Fate or Choice?

   2. On Joining the Old Boys' Club

"Magic Seminar"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

A. Objective: Recognize facilitating and inhibiting effects which being a woman or man has had on each participant's career development.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is a good one to use to raise the trust level of groups and to generate support groups. Presentations on distinguishing between assertive-aggressive-passive should occur prior to this strategy.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader establishes rules for seminar. Leader must strictly enforce these rules if the strategy is to be effective;

   1) Everyone has his/her own personal space.
   2) Everyone will have a chance to talk.
   3) No put-downs or evaluations allowed.
   4) You may ask contributor to clarify statements.
   5) "Own" your feelings and opinions.
   6) Everyone should listen attentively and use first names.

c. Form small groups and pass out "Rules and Cues" handout to each group. Facilitators are to pick out one of the following cues as topics for discussion (listed on handout also):

   1) A time I felt good being a man (male)/woman (female).
   2) A time I felt bad being a man (male)/woman (female).
   3) A time I felt good and bad being a woman/man.
   4) A time I got in trouble for my sex-role attitudes.
   5) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an aggressive man/woman.
   6) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an assertive man/woman.
   7) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with a passive man/woman.
   8) A time I got in trouble for my sex/race-role attitudes.
   9) Use your own topic.

d. At end of session, leader and members sum up by noting similarities and differences in contributions.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes to 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Rules and Cues"

Outcome Criteria:

At end of workshop, participants will write one paragraph about their feelings about the seminar using the following:

1) "What I enjoyed about the seminar was..."
2) "What I would change about the seminar is..."

RULES AND CUES

Magic Seminar Rules

1) Everyone has his/her own personal space.
2) Everyone will have a chance to talk.
3) No put-downs or evaluations allowed.
4) You may ask contributor to clarify statements.
5) "Own" your feelings and opinions.
6) Everyone should listen attentively and use first names.

Magic Seminar Cues

1) A time I felt good being a man (male)/woman (female).
2) A time I felt bad being a man (male)/woman (female).
3) A time I felt good and bad about being a woman/man.
4) A time I got in trouble for my sex-role attitudes.
5) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an aggressive man/woman.
6) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with an assertive man/woman.
7) A time I felt uncomfortable in dealing with a passive man/woman.
8) A time I got in trouble for my sex/race-role attitudes.
9) Use your own topic. For example, modify one of the above to include race, economic class, age, etc., as in: "A time I felt uncomfortable dealing with an aggressive Black (Caucasian) woman/man."

"Facilitators and Inhibitors"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

A. Objective: Recognize facilitating and inhibiting effects which being a woman or man has had on each participant's career development.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to help participants understand the sex-typed assumptions and behaviors for self and others which facilitate and inhibit career development. The leader should recognize that the level of awareness participants bring to the session may determine how much assistance they will need with the task. With limited time leader may choose Part I of this strategy and skip Parts II and III.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. This step involves three parts. Workshop leaders can choose to do one or all of these parts depending on time limitations. Use of personal examples may be helpful in presenting this activity to participants. Ask people to consider including their racial identification ("being an Asian female/male...") or other classification in their statement. Allow 15 minutes.

Part I:

The leader explains to the participants that they are to pair up with another person (preferably someone they do not know) and complete the following two statements:

1) I feel my career development was facilitated because of being female/male...

2) I feel my career development was inhibited because of being female/male...

Part II:

The leader asks each pair to combine with another pair (preferably people they do not know) and has them respond to the following statement:

I felt I facilitated or inhibited another person's career development...

Allow 15 minutes for group sharing.

Part III:

The leader asks each group of four to pair up with another group of four, making a total of eight people in a group (preferably they are to pair up with a group of four they do not know). The leader asks that members of original pairs (i.e., the pairs formed in Part I) introduce her/his partner to the group by relating what either facilitated or inhibited her/his partner's career development. Allow 20 minutes for group sharing.

c. After groups have finished sharing, reconvene as a large group and discuss.

Possible discussion questions might include:

1) Were there any similarities in responses among you and your dyad partner? In your group of four? In your group of eight? Discuss.

2) Were there any similarities among males in your group? Among females? Among different racial groups? Discuss.

3) What were some of the major differences between the responses of the males and the responses of the females in your groups? Among different racial groups?

4) How did it make you feel to consider your career development being inhibited or facilitated because of your sex or race? Would you have liked to change the situation to make it more sex- and/or race-equal? If so, how would you have liked to change the situation?

5) Which was easier for you to think of - when you were facilitated or when you were inhibited? Why?

d. Leader should summarize in a short (5-10 minute) mini-lecture on facilitating/inhibiting effects, incorporating participants' comments and the leader's thoughts.

Minimum Time Required:		
	Part I:	20 minutes
	Part II:	20 minutes
	Part III:	25 minutes

Resources Needed:

None

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list two facilitating and two inhibiting effects which being a woman or man had on her/his career development.

"Are Females Persons?"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

A. Objective: Recognize facilitating and inhibiting effects which being a woman or man has had on each participant's career development.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

Studies by Broverman et al. (1972)* asked mental health practitioners and college students to define a mature adult man, woman, and person. Results showed that the descriptions for a mature adult man and a mature adult person were similar. But a mature adult woman was described as more emotional, irrational, easily excitable, less adventurous, etc.

The purpose of the following strategy is to have participants discover the impact of sex-role socialization on how women and men are perceived by doing a quick study patterned on Broverman's. Note, though, that for a number of reasons, participants may not have the same results as the above study; be ready to discuss possible reasons for this. It could be because the people in the study somehow know what the purpose was. Or it could be because there is a "new catechism" operating; that is, that some people have picked up the rhetoric and superficial aspects of equality for women and men, but their beliefs and behaviors haven't really changed. The possibility of a study such as this revealing underlying sex biases in these instances then are limited, but the discussion about these reasons can provide needed insight into the change process.

Prior to the workshop, ask participants to conduct a study at their institution. Give them copies of "Guidelines for Conducting Study" attached. This can be done with a class, advising staff, counselors, department personnel, parent groups, etc.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Participants bring their data to the workshop. Then collate characteristics for each list (person, woman, man) by making three columns on the board or on newsprint, with the headings "person," "woman," "man," and having participants share characteristics from their lists.

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*Although Broverman has not found significant differences across race, it should be noted that others have (O'Leary, 1977), and one should therefore be aware of possible differences in feminine/masculine stereotypes across race, age, class and religious groups.

c. Discuss in large group: Are "woman" and "person" similar or different? "Man" and "person"? "Woman" and "man"?

d. In small groups:

If differences appeared, discuss:

How does this affect your own career development?

If no differences appeared, discuss:

Is there a "new catechism" operating, or have people's beliefs about women changed? Do you feel any pressure, from yourself or others, to be feminine or masculine? If there is a "new catechism" operating, what implications does that have for your counseling or advising? Have you felt this dynamic in your own life?

e. Summarize in large group.

Alternative Strategy:

You could bypass the external study and instead have the participants themselves do it in small groups (but don't tell them the purpose). Break into three groups and give each group one of the lists to do. Then proceed with a. through d. above.

Minimum Time Required: 34-45 minutes during session. (Additional time outside of workshop to conduct study.)

Resources Needed:

Materials: Prior to workshop have participants conduct study. Give them attached handout, "Guidelines for Conducting Study."

Handout: "Guidelines for Conducting Study"

Reference: Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz (1972)

Participants will summarize data from their own institutions and analyze the effects of femininity-masculinity pressures on their own career development.

GUIDELINES FOR CONDUCTING STUDY

Studies by Broverman et al. (1972) asked mental health practitioners and college students to define a mature adult man, woman, and person. Results showed that the descriptions for a mature adult man and a mature adult person were similar. But a mature adult woman was described as more emotional, irrational, easily excitable, less adventurous, etc.

You will now be trying to redo the study (though the Broverman et al. method and instruments will not be used). Select a group--a class, group of advisers, counselors--preferably from your own educational institution. Then put each of the three statements below on a separate ditto and make copies for your group (or perhaps the workshop leader will have this done for you). The statements are:

Sheet # 1: Please write down all the characteristics (nouns or adjectives) that describe a mature adult person.

Sheet # 2: Please write down all the characteristics (nouns or adjectives) that describe a mature adult woman.

Sheet # 3: Please write down all the characteristics (nouns or adjectives) that describe a mature adult man.

Pass out only one of these statements to each person in your study. (Be sure that equal numbers of each sheet of the three sheets are passed out to the total group.) Explain that you are in a workshop that includes a look at psychological development and you want their perceptions of mature adult persons. Do not explain any further and do not use the words "women and men."

Collect the sheets and tabulate the results so that you will be ready to share them during the workshop.

Note: You may also wish to share your results (and the workshop results) with the group(s) who participated in your study.

"Occupational Family Tree"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

B. Objective: Recognize other persons--parents, siblings, friends, peers, teachers, counselors, etc.--who had a facilitating or inhibiting influence on participants' own lives and career decisions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy may not be appropriate for some people who may find it difficult or uncomfortable to trace family occupational backgrounds.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass out copies of the "Occupational Family Tree Worksheet." Ask participants to complete it, showing occupations held by their parents, grandparents, and other relatives. They should list the occupations as broad occupational categories, e.g., "teacher" rather than "biology teacher at Exemplary Senior High School."

c. Pass out copies of "Discussion Questions for 'Occupational Family Tree.'" Ask participants to complete it and then to discuss the results in small groups of five to six people using the questions provided.

d. Summarize in total group.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Occupational Family Tree"
"Discussion Questions for 'Occupational Family Tree'"

Outcome Criterion:

After participants complete the "Occupational Family Tree Worksheet," they will list reasons for any trend that may appear in the occupations of their family members.

OCCUPATIONAL FAMILY TREE WORKSHEET

great-grandmother ______ great-grandfather ______ great-grandmother ______ great-grandfather ______ great-grandmother ______ great-grandfather ______ great-grandmother ______ great-grandfather ______

grandmother ______ grandfather ______ grandmother ______ grandfather ______

aunt/uncle ______ aunt/uncle ______ father ______ mother ______ aunt/uncle ______ aunt/uncle ______

my sister ______ my sister ______ my brother ______ my brother ______

me ______

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR "OCCUPATIONAL FAMILY TREE"

1. What occupation is the most common in your family as far as you know?

2. What is the most common occupation on your father's side? Mother's side?

3. What occupation is most common among the men in the family? Among the women in the family?

4. Can you see any pattern in the occupational choices of your family? What?

5. If one occupation seems to occur quite frequently, can you give reasons why it might be so?

6. Do your own occupational aspirations bear any relationship to the occupational patterns of your family? How?

7. Do you see a pattern of family occupational choices influencing the career choices made by your children? How?

8. What other things in your family history have influenced you?

    a. family interests

    b. economic status

    c. family friends

    d. relatives

    e. attitudes of parents

    f. religious connections

    g. discipline

    h. special family events

    i. place lived

    j. ethnic or racial background

    k. physical disability

P-E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

III.B.2.

"Parenting - Three Generations" (Videotape)

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

B. Objective: Recognize other persons--parents, siblings, friends, peers, teachers, counselors, etc.--who had a facilitating or inhibiting influence on partipants' own lives and career decisions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should read the Video Viewers' Guide and review videotape no. 5, "Parenting - Three Generations," prior to using this strategy. It presents the perspectives of three generations of parenting, their expectations, choices, and changes in role socialization. Workshop leaders should be sensitive to the level of awareness of the audience and readiness to deal with some of the issues presented.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Introduce the tape as a tool to help people think about the influence, effects, and power of parenting.

c. Read to the audience the segment from the Video Viewers' Guide on BORN FREE concepts and definitions.

d. Show the 30-minute color videotape.

e. Discuss in small groups of five to seven. Suggested discussion questions might include?

1) In retrospect, how does Dr. Jeannette Piccard see her role as parent? What do you think she means by allowing the children to "do their own suffering"? How are you allowing your children to do their own suffering? In what ways did you do your own suffering? In what ways might that view be related to the concept of learned helplessness?
2) Dr. Hansen mentions "the outer limits of human possibilities." What might have been or yet might be the outer limits of your possibilities? In what ways can we better provide for our children's reaching the outer limits of their humanness?
3) Evie Donald says she and Bill are in a couple of different places in their awareness of sexism. Where are you and your partner, parents, family? Whose level of awareness are you closest to?

4) What were some "shoulds" and "should nots" in Dr. Jeannette Piccard's life? In your parents' lives? In your children's lives? How did her parents' expectations of her life differ from her own expectations? How did her parents differ from yours? Yours differ from your children's? Which did Dr. Piccard follow? Which did you follow? Which parent's expectations are your children following?
5) Guidance played an important role in Dr. Piccard's life at a crucial time. How did it become an essential ingredient in the happiness of her own children? What risks did she take in seeking guidance? In what ways might our children's lives profit through our seeking guidance?
6) What does Dr. Hansen mean by "bias-free person-centered parenting"? What is an example from your life? Is there any way to become bias-free?
7) How does Harriett Haynes see experiences for her children as different from what she experienced? If parents follow through on their convictions about sex-role-free child rearing, how will messages that they give to their children be different?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5 minutes - introduction
30 minutes for tape
25 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: "Parenting - Three Generations" (Videotape)
Video Viewers' Guide No. 5: Parenting - Three Generations

Outcome Criterion:

After viewing and discussing the tape, each viewer will identify three of the most significant strengths of positive parenting.

"Parents as Influencers" (Videotape)

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

B. Objective: Recognize other persons--parents, siblings, friends, peers, teachers, counselors, etc.--who had a facilitating or inhibiting influence on participants' own lives and career decisions.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should read the Video Viewers' Guide and review videotape no. 6, "Parents as Influencers," prior to using this strategy. The purpose of this strategy is to heighten people's awareness of the influence (positive and negative) parents have on their children's career decisions. Within the videotape to be shown, the influences of fathers and mothers are separately discussed, a sketch of a family in transition is presented, and examples of emergent parents are given. Workshop leaders should be sensitive to the level of awareness of the audience readiness to deal with some of the issues discussed.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Introduce the tape as a tool to help people think about their influence as parents and their children's career decisions.

c. Read to the audience the segment from the Video Viewers' Guide on BORN FREE concepts and definitions or rephrase in own words.

d. Show the 30-minute color videotape.

e. Discuss in small groups of five to seven. Suggested discussion questions might include:

    1) Look back on your own career development. How did your parents influence your career decisions? Which were more influential, their own careers (work and family roles) or the advice they gave?

    2) How conscious are you of your own influence on your children's career decisions--the toys you buy, the TV shows and books your children watch and read, your feelings about your career and your spouse's career, messages about "shoulds" and "should nots" you give your children, statements you make about your friends and your children's friends?

3) When do parental responsibilities for guiding their children's development stop and give way to children's right to make their own career decisions? How can parents provide guidance without taking away the rights and responsibilities of their children?

4) In general, do fathers exert or wield an influence different from the influence exercised by mothers? Is a father's influence more or less powerful? Do fathers have special influence with their sons or daughters?

5) Gary Edwards, the male telephone operator, made the statement that people usually want to follow in their father's footsteps to a degree. What do you think he meant by his statement? What factors influence children to choose to follow or not to follow in their father's footsteps?

6) In discussing her father, Carol Hasegawa, the Asian female graduate student, noted that her father was different from many fathers whose image of "masculinity" limited their role as a parent. Do you feel that our present concept of masculinity severely limits what men can and should do as fathers? If yes, how?

7) Concerning the influence of mothers, Dr. Hansen indicated that many of the fears about working or employed mothers are based more on myth than reality. What is your opinion about the effects of mothers working? What are the myths and what are the realities? What does the research literature say?

8) Marilyn Gorlin, the female administrator and parent, talked about nurturing as the greatest role anybody could play. Do you feel mothers are generally more nurturing with their children than are fathers? Why or why not? As a result of the feminist movement, do you think mothers are becoming less involved with their children and starting to think more of their own needs rather than always putting their children's needs first? Is this good or bad? Why? What about fathers--are they becoming more involved with their children as a result of the men's movement?

9) Within the videotape, Winn Jeffries recalled how she and her family responded to crises that the family faced. Can you relate to any of the problems and feelings encountered by this family? How is your family situation different from or similar to this family's?

10) In the last segment of the tape, different parents share how they have identified or adapted their roles as parents. From listening to these parents, what do you see as the primary advantages or payoffs to parents who have switched over to

shared and flexible responsibilities? What are the difficulties or disadvantages encountered in giving up specific sex-linked parent roles?

11) Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5 minutes introduction
30 minutes for tape
25 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: "Parents as Influencers" (Videotape)
Video Viewers' Guide No. 6: Parents as Influencers

Outcome Criterion:

After viewing and discussing the tape, each participant will state:

1) how their own career development was influenced by their parents and/or
2) three ways they would hope to influence their own children.

"Deciding: Fate or Choice?"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

C. Objective: Recognize various decision points in one's career development and one's own responsibility in the career development process.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Strategy X.A.2., "Your Decision-Making Style," can be used with this strategy.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Ask participants to look at career lifeline completed previously (I.A.1., "Career Lifeline").

Have participants go back over their career lifeline and mark it with the following symbols:

X = Decisions someone made for you (male or female?)
Y = Decisions you and someone made together (male or female?)
Z = Decisions you made for yourself
W = "Decisions" due to fate, chance, accident, etc.

c. Share in small groups. Questions that might be used for discussion include:

1) Was there a balance in your symbols? What was the pattern?
2) Who made the decisions for you--female? Male? Is there a pattern? (Idea here is to draw out possible situation of female going from father's authority to husband's).
3) How did you feel at the time, and how do you feel about it now?
4) Do you expect to change your decision-making control in the future?
5) How might this be relevant for your students?

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour (plus time spent developing lifeline, I.A.1.)

Resources Needed:

Materials: Completed career lifeline from I.A.1., "Career Lifeline"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will analyze internal and external influences on their own decision-making process.

"On Joining the Old Boys' Club"

III. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BRING CONCEPTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION TO A PERSONALLY RELEVANT LEVEL.

C. Objective: Recognize various decision points in one's career development and one's own responsibility in the career development process.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Increasingly barriers are being broken down and women are being admitted to previously all-male social networks. Understanding of how it feels to admit women--from both the female and male viewpoints--is important to the dialog about changing male-female roles.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. This strategy consists of two parts. Part I is a role play of a male social club of leaders in your discipline or professional field discussing whether to admit women. Identify a group of five to six male volunteers willing to role play the meeting at which this discussion occurs. Use the guidelines for role playing in the introductory material as a guide.

c. Part II is a meeting of the same group where the first woman is being initiated into the Old Boys' Club (assuming the vote was affirmative). Ask for a female volunteer to join the men as the first woman member at the next meeting. Then conduct the role play as an initiation and welcome of the woman into the club.

d. Questions for discussion:

1) What arguments might the members advance for maintaining the status quo?
2) What are the major arguments for changing the bylaws to admit women?
3) What are some of the stereotypes which emerge from the discussion? Do the stereotypes differ depending on the race of the women?
4) How would you describe the attitudes of the men who attended the initiation meeting? Those who voted for? Those who voted against?
5) How do you think the woman feels about being the first woman in an all-male group?
6) What kind of reinforcements can be provided for men who act affirmatively on such issues?
7) What are likely to be the long-run implications of such action?
8) Are there some Old Boys' Clubs to which women would/should not be admitted?

9) Are there comparable women's clubs to which men might be admitted?

10) What are some advantages and disadvantages of forming "New Girls' Clubs"?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

References: None
See "Role Playing" guidelines in introductory section of this packet.

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify three arguments for and three arguments against opening the Old Boys' Clubs to women.

Goal IV

PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Examine arguments in favor of career development education and sex fairness in light of the goals of their institution.

   1. Vocational Education and Sex-Role Stereotyping

   2. Fornbee College: A Role Play

   3. Analyzing Mission/Goal Statements

B. Demonstrate the relation of liberal arts to flexible student planning for occupation and career.

   1. Skills Applicable to Many Careers

   2. Curriculum and Career Development

C. Generate a list of alternative career or life-style options within their own discipline or interest area.

   1. Sex-Role Transcenders

"Vocational Education and Sex-Role Stereotyping"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

A. Objective: Examine arguments in favor of career development education and sex fairness in light of the goals of their institution.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The field of vocational education is a vitally important one in which to address issues related to sex-role stereotyping. This strategy is designed to stimulate some initial thinking about ways in which vocational educators can reduce sex-role stereotyping and thereby help to combat occupational segregation by sex. The article "Resources on Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education" can be used as an additional resource at the leader's discretion.

Instructions:

a. Prior to the session, distribute copies of Corinne Rieder's "Work, Women, and Vocational Education" to the participants. Also distribute copies of the handout "Discussion Questions" and ask participants to be prepared to discuss them.

b. For the discussion session, divide the group into subgroups of four to six people. Each subgroup should select two or three of the discussion questions to consider for 45 minutes to an hour.

c. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes (for reading article prior to session)
45 minutes (discussion time)

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Discussion Questions for 'Work, Women, and Vocational Education'"

Attached articles: "Work, Women, and Vocational Education" (Rieder, 1977)
"Resources on Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education" (Justice and Budke, 1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five possible strategies to reduce vocational education-related sex-role stereotyping in their home institution, being aware of differences based on race and economic class.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR "WORK, WOMEN, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION"

1. For you personally, what were the most significant aspects of the article?

2. What is meant by the term "occupational segregation of women"? What are some implications of it in the labor market?

3. What inroads can vocational education institutions make into the reduction of occupational segregation?

4. Discuss the six steps mentioned in the article which can be taken by vocational educators to reduce sex-role stereotyping and occupational segregation. Which would be most helpful in your own school? Which are most feasible?

5. Discuss the attitudes of your own colleagues which may inhibit or support the kinds of efforts mentioned in question 4 above.

6. Consider the impact of occupational segregation on male vocational students.

7. What are some of the interaction effects of sex-role stereotyping with stereotyping by race, by ethnic background, and by socioeconomic class?

8. What part does being physically disabled play in occupational stereotyping?

WORK, WOMEN, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION[1]

by Corinne H. Rieder

Most of the 37 million women who are now working in the United States are occupationally segregated. That is to say, they are victimized by covert discrimination, often unintentional, and by socialization practices that effectively limit their careers. What's more, 1.2 million women who will join them this year will enter the same low-pay, low-status jobs that women have traditionally held. In addressing this issue, a fair question would be: Do vocational-education programs contribute to this job and pay segregation? If indeed they do, a further question must be answered: What can be done about it?

The struggle for equity for women in work and training should not be confused with some of the more inflammatory and highly publicized aspects of the feminist movement. Although it may lack the theatrics to win headlines, that struggle is the essence of the movement and a revolution in American society. Any discussion of women and work must begin with the extraordinary and largely unforeseen number of women entering the work force.

In the first 40 years of this century, the labor-force-participation rate of women rose slowly from 20 percent in 1900 to 29 percent in 1940. This situation changed dramatically when, after America entered World War II, women replaced men in many traditionally all-male occupations. Instead of declining after the war, women's entry into the labor market accelerated. In the 25-year period between 1949 and 1974, the number of American women who worked for pay outside the home more than doubled and they continue to enter the labor force at an extraordinary rate, making up 33 percent of the national work force in 1960, 38 percent in 1970 and more than 40 percent in 1976, a figure they were not expected to reach until 1985, according to U.S. Labor Department forecasts made as recently as three years ago. Economists are now saying that half of American women over 16 will be in the work force within two or three years.

Eli Ginsberg, chairman of the National Commission for Manpower Policy, has gone so far as to call the increase of women in the work force "the single most outstanding phenomenon of our century" and to add that "its long-term implications are absolutely unchartable.... It will affect women, men, and children, and the cumulative consequences of that will only be revealed in the 21st and 22nd centuries."

There are many factors accounting for this increase of women in the work force. Among them are the availability of jobs, particularly in those rapidly growing fields--sales, clerical, service--where there is a preponderance of women; the rising divorce rates, the declining birth rates, and later marriages; the increasing number of women who are educated, particularly female college graduates who want to pursue careers; the high inflation rate which makes a second income necessary for a family to survive or to maintain a standard of living; and finally, the women's movement, which has raised social consciousness, made working for pay outside the home more socially acceptable for mothers, and fostered the view that through work women can find additional intellectual and personal fulfillment.

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[1] From: American Education, June, 1977, 3 (5), pp. 27-30. Reprinted by permission of Corinne H. Rieder, Executive Director, Youthwork, Inc., 805 Fifteenth St,, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005. (202) 347-2900.

Despite the gains in the number of women employed, the patterns of job segregation that confine women to the traditionally "female" occupations have not changed. Whether one examines specific occupations, occupational groups, or concentration by industry, women are less well distributed in the work force than men. To illustrate, more than 40 percent of all women in the work force are employed in ten occupations: secretary, retail sales clerk, bookkeeper, private household worker, elementary-school teacher, waitress, typist, cashier, nurse, and seamstress. By comparison, only 20 percent of males are concentrated in the ten largest occupations employing men.

The occupational segregation of women is also evident in comparing men and women by occupational groups. Nearly 70 percent of women are employed in three occupational groups: clerical (35 percent), service (18 percent), and professional and technical (15 percent). Only 50 percent of men are employed in the largest three occupational groups employing men: skilled crafts (21 percent), professional and technical (14 percent), and managers (14 percent).

Finally, occupational segregation by sex also exists by industries. Sixty-three percent of all women employed in nonagricultural positions are concentrated in services (25 percent), retail (20 percent), and state and local government (18 percent, largely teachers). In comparison, 45 percent of men are concentrated in the three largest industries employing men: manufacturing (19 percent), retail (14 percent), and state and local government (12 percent).

Within occupations, women are also segregated. In medicine, they are overrepresented in pediatrics, psychiatry, anesthesiology, and pathology but grossly underrepresented in surgery and surgical specialties. In addition, they are less likely than men to be in private practice and particularly in private solo practice. In law, few women are in the upper echelons of law firms, on judicial benches, or in prominent positions in state and national legislatures. And in education, women account for nearly 85 percent of the nation's elementary teachers but less than 50 percent of secondary-school teachers and only 25 percent of college-level teachers. In school administration, the figures are even more striking. Here women account for only 19 percent of all elementary principals, one percent of secondary principals, and only one-tenth of one percent of school superintendents. Today there are only 150 women who are chief executives of colleges, mostly two-year and four-year church-related colleges with small enrollments. Outside education, nearly one out of seven men are in managerial and administrative positions; the comparable ratio for women is one out of 20.

The result of women's occupational segregation in the labor market is low wages. This occurs even in the fastest growing industries. For example, women who work full time had median weekly earnings of $124 in 1974. This is about 60 percent of the $204 reported for men. In fact, during the last few years the difference in earnings between men and women widened slightly. Across industries, female earnings as a percentage of male earnings are best in agriculture (83 percent) and public administration (71 percent). They are worst in finance, insurance, and real estate (56 percent), and in manufacturing (57 percent).

Even the economic return associated with greater educational attainment is substantially less for women than for men. In 1974 the median income for a female college graduate who worked full time was $9,771; for men, median earnings were $16,576.

Low wages for women hurt not only women but also children and men. First, women work because of economic need, just as men do. Sixty-seven percent of working women are either single, divorced, widowed, separated, or have husbands who earn less than $7,000 per year. In many instances the earnings of wives make the difference between a middle or a low standard of living.

Divorce and separation are increasing in our society, and the final impact is often severe. Only 50 percent of women in divorce actions receive alimony or child support. For those, the median total payment is $1,300 per year. The median annual wage for a female-headed family is only $5,116 and nearly 33 percent of such families have incomes below the poverty line. For minorities the problems are even more severe, and more than half of all families headed by a minority woman have incomes below the poverty level. A General Accounting Office report recently found that the combined average monthly income of women and children receiving both welfare and earned income in 1975 was less than $300 a month; the median income of the man who abandoned them was about $800 a month.

The concentration of women in traditional female occupations is barely changing. In the ten-year period between 1960 and 1970, the number of women in the skilled trades--a matter of utmost importance to vocational educators--increased by 218,000 (from 277,000 to 495,000). In specific trades, the female share of employment increased as follows: for carpenters, from 0.4 to 1.3 percent; for electricians, from 0.7 to 1.8 percent; for plumbers, from 0.3 to 1.1 percent; for auto mechanics, from 0.4 to 1.4 percent; for painters, from 1.9 to 4.1 percent; for tool-and-die makers, from 0.6 to 2.1 percent; and for machinists, from 1.3 to 3.1 percent. In the health professions, by way of comparison, the proportion of women physicians rose from 7 to 9 percent and women dentists increased from 2.3 to 3.4 percent.

When measured as a rate of increase, women's entry into nontraditional occupations showed impressive growth. For example, the number of women carpenters quadrupled in the decade 1960-1970. This rate of growth is encouraging, but the absolute numbers of women in such occupations are so small that it remains to be seen if such growth rates can continue in the future. For the most part women keep crowding the clerical and service fields, and over the next decade projections indicate that two-thirds of the total increase in employment of women will take place in those traditionally female occupations.

Because vocational-education enrollments faithfully mirror the occupational segregation by sex in the labor force, it may be inferred that vocational education has done little to eliminate occupational segregation.

Although women make up 55 percent (6.4 million) of the 11.6 million students enrolled in federally funded vocational education and two-thirds of all secondary vocational enrollments, they are heavily concentrated in home economics (leading mainly to unpaid homemaking roles), and in office and health occupations. For example, about 45 percent of the women receiving vocational education in 1972 were enrolled in consumer and homemaking classes, and women constituted 92 percent of all enrollees in these programs. Twenty-eight percent of all women vocational students were taking training leading to office occupations, and again they made up a substantial percentage (84.7) of all enrollees in such programs.

Conversely, women are underrepresented in trade, industrial, and technical education. In trade and industrial occupations, they make up less than 12 percent of total enrollments and even then they are heavily concentrated in such traditionally female fields as cosmetology, textile production and fabrication, commercial and graphic arts, public services, and supervisory training. In technical occupations, less than ten percent of the total enrollment is female, and in only one occupational title--scientific data technology--do women make up more than 30 percent of total enrollments.

Thus almost all the women in vocational education are concentrated in a few traditional programs. Change has been slow, but the changes are interesting to review: Between 1969 and 1973, a few women began to enroll in traditionally "male" vocational programs. Although the number of women enrolled in these programs was small, the increase was significant. In air-conditioning courses the number of women enrollees went from 70 to 2,664; in auto body and fender repair, from 7 to 1,082; in auto mechanics, from 906 to 4,299; in carpentry, from 111 to 1,451; in metal occupations, from 1,367 to 3,081; in law-enforcement training, from 2,225 to 4,943; and in woodworking occupations, from 592 to 5,373.

Ending occupational sex-role stereotyping and segregation is most certainly in the national interest. Consider the loss to the country when one-half of the population is unable to make a full contribution to the general economic, political, and social welfare because of occupational sex-role stereotyping. By limiting male roles and female roles, men as well as women are affected. If sex-role stereotyping were eliminated, many more service and white-collar opportunities would be open to men. Why shouldn't it be considered appropriate for a man to be an elementary-school teacher, a clerk typist, or a nurse, and for a woman to be a bus driver or a skilled craft worker?

Eliminating the "overcrowding" of women in a narrow band of occupations would tend to equalize incomes between men and women. And that could be an advantage to both sexes. The recent recession brought home to many men firsthand what it was like to have to live on their wives' income. As men were laid off, they began to look more seriously at their wives' low income and to question why it was so low.

Vocational educators, as much as any other single group in our society, have both the responsibility and the means to do something about these problems. They are at the critical juncture between school and work; they recruit students, provide them with the knowledge and skills needed for successful job entry, and place them in their first jobs. Their responsibility is to represent the utilitarian purposes of education and to meet society's economic needs. Within the world of work, they are concerned with developing their students' potential to the fullest and placing students in a work environment that is financially and psychologically rewarding. They must stand in the first rank in the battle against occupational and educational segregation.

Vocational educators can take six steps toward combating sex-role stereotyping and occupational segregation. First, they can implement fully the vocational-education section of the Education Amendments of 1976. The Act is unequivocal on the problem of sex bias in vocational education, calling for the assignment of full-time personnel who will: create greater awareness of vocational-education programs and activities that reduce sex stereotyping; gather, analyze, and disseminate data on the status of male and female students and employees; review the distribution of grants by the state boards to ensure that women's needs are being met; review vocational programs for sex bias; monitor all personnel laws prohibiting discrimination; review and submit recommendations in the annual program plan and report; and provide assistance to local-education agencies or other bodies in overcoming sex stereotyping and sex bias.

Clearly, the provisions of this law cannot be fulfilled by lip-service, nor do they invite merely an imposition of still another layer of bureaucracy. The Act is a charter and a mandate under which vocational educators can set their house in order with support and information from higher levels of government.

As a second step vocational educators can change recruitment and admission practices and policies. Over the next few years, the Office of Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will be carefully examining enrollments in vocational schools, courses, and programs. It will be joined by the Lawyer's Committee for Equal Rights Under the Law, funded by the Carnegie and Ford Foundations, which will be looking at the same problem. Recruitment policies--where and how prospective students are recruited--will most likely be a special focus of these investigations.

A third effort vocational educators can make is toward improving guidance and counseling efforts. Counselors have a particularly important role. They can either reinforce sex-role stereotypes that narrow occupational choices or they can encourage students to think more broadly about their educational and occupational decisions. For example, standardized tests, particularly career-interest inventories, should be interpreted in ways that are fair to both sexes and used as tools to expand the career possibilities explored by both girls and boys. Counselors will be made aware of these problems and of the ways they can bring about change only through inservice and preservice training.

The education and work group of the National Institute of Education has funded the development of many excellent materials that are now available for such training, including *Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit*, *New Career Options for Women: A Counselor's Sourcebook*, and two films with teacher's and students' guides.

Fourth, vocational educators can revise curricular materials and teaching practices. An NIE-funded study found that most career-education materials examined were sex-biased. The Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, the contractor for this study, developed a simple checklist to assess sex bias and some specific ways to counter it. The checklist is available from the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, 463 West Street, New York, NY 10014.

A fifth strategy would be to increase the number of female vocational administrators and qualified women teachers in male-dominated courses and male teachers in female-dominated fields. Although women faculty dominate the traditionally female vocational subjects, they are all but absent in other vocational programs--agricultural, technical, trade, and industrial. At administrative levels, women are present in only token numbers. There is only one woman state director of vocational education. Fewer than 20 percent of the national and state vocational education advisory council members are women. Training and placement programs need to be mounted immediately to increase the pool of qualified women and to see that they are placed in teaching and administrative positions commensurate with their skills and experience. The development of such programs should be a major role for the new National Center for Vocational Education.

Finally, vocational educators can continue important research and development efforts on women in vocational education. Continued research and development is sorely needed not only on the problems facing women in choosing and entering careers and in progressing in them, but also on interventions that will ease their transition from school to work and make more successful their later labor-market experiences. Four specific areas need immediate attention. One is the impact of working women on family life. As women take an equal share of the high-paying jobs, two questions will demand answers: Will the income difference between poor and better-off families increase? Will male unemployment increase? Studies will also be needed on nonprofessional women who make up over 80 percent of women in the labor force. Since the 1920s, research in this field has declined to a point where in recent years there has not been a single book devoted to the social and economic problems of these women.

A third subject that needs more research is avocational interests, which, studies already suggest, can be important to people's career choices. Vocational educators should be working with elementary and junior high-school students in the schools and through youth groups (4H, YMCA and YWCA, Girl and Boy Scouts) to broaden and deepen the opportunities to explore nontraditional roles. Boys in particular need to feel more comfortable in helping roles, while much work needs to be done in encouraging girls to assume leadership positions and better use their mechanical and technical aptitudes. Further, vocational educators need to work more closely with parents to inform them of trade and technical job opportunities so that they will not inadvertently discourage their youngsters from pursuing nontraditional avocational and vocational interests.

Since vocational educators are directly concerned with the educational goal of preparing individuals for work, they have an obligation to work toward eliminating the negative effects of practices in the home and early school that lock individuals into traditional male or female stereotyped occupational roles. Their efforts should also be extended against those policies and practices of the work community which overtly or covertly discriminate against either sex.

One NIE response to intervening in the socialization process is a new children's television series, now under development at the public television station in Los Angeles. The series, aimed at children in grades 4-6 and their parents and teachers, is intended to reduce the limiting effect that sex roles may have on the development of interests and preferences, which in turn affect educational and occupational decisions.

Vocational educators should also take the lead in expanding cooperative relationships with unions and employers in order to help women find jobs and take part in exploring career possibilities, especially in nontraditional fields.

A third way vocational educators can intervene is by exercising leadership. They could take the lead in prodding federal, state, and local officials to engage in public discussion of important issues relevant to the social revolution now taking place. They could, for instance, support the establishment of a National Commission on Women and Work, which would place special emphasis on the needs and aspirations of America's nonprofessional female worker--the clerk, the saleswoman, and the service and blue-collar woman--those who make up over 80 percent of working women.

One reason for such a national commission is that these women, who are vocational education's constituency, have largely been ignored in most public discussions on the role of women today. The focus during the last decade has almost exclusively been on the middle-class, upwardly mobile educated woman. The voice of women's liberation was her voice and spoke of her need to fulfill herself, to compete and to succeed in a man's world. These voices broke the barriers by writing the books, making the speeches, filming the shows, and editing the magazines that have made her middle-class male counterpart begin to understand her needs and ambitions.

It is time for the voice of her less educated sister to be heard. Although a national commission is no panacea and lacks the luster of a presentation like *Roots*, it can generate public awareness of the nonprofessional, working woman's plight; it can stimulate legislative and administrative initiatives that address her special problems; it can identify research and development activities that might help her break out of existing patterns of job stereotyping and improve her own self-image.

The most important and difficult single barrier in eliminating sex stereotyping and segregation is attitude. Most women and men have at one time or another believed that there are occupations that should be held by only one sex, that women are inherently less competent than men, that women cannot successfully supervise men or other women, that if women with young children go to work the family will inevitably disintegrate.

Fifteen years ago the civil-rights movement faced similar attitudinal barriers in the struggle for equity under the law. Those barriers by and large have been toppled, revealing how flimsy and meaningless they were and how impotent against the forces of learning, living, and working. Dare women hope that the attitudinal barriers to their equity are similarly vulnerable?

President Carter told the United Nations General Assembly: "The basic thrust of human affairs points toward a more universal demand for fundamental human rights. The United States has a historical birthright to be associated with this process."

Certainly, sex fairness is a fundamental human right.

RESOURCES ON ELIMINATING SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION[1]

The following annotated items were selected for their usefulness to vocational educators and counselors in program planning, preservice, inservice, and classroom use. An availability statement or contact address is listed with each item. Items listed in the ERIC system are available in either microfiche (MF) or hard copy (HC) from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210. The resource list is organized by the type of item and subheaded by subject area.

STATE AND LOCAL PROJECTS

Career Development Centers. Contact: Otho Jones, District of Columbia Public Schools, Room 1001, 415 12th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20004, (202) 724-4178. Career advisors were used in conjunction with Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities (SEGO) trainers and vocational counselors to increase the career options of female students. The project staff worked with employers to initiate female work-study arrangements in nontraditional programs.

Eli Whitney Vocational High School. Contact: Nathan Mayron, Principal, 257 North 6th St., Brooklyn, NY 11211, (212) 287-7658. An innovative exploratory program is being offered during the ninth grade. Every student works at an introductory level in 10 of the 15 vocational shop areas. Guidance procedures are designed to eliminate sex bias in occupational training choice.

New Opportunities in Vocational Education. Contact: Frederick Frank, Educational Administration Center, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, IL 60115, (815) 753-1463. Ten females and/or members of some minority group will be recruited, trained and placed in vocational administrative positions. Existing competency-based graduate programs will be used in training. Final report and project products will be available in the fall of 1977.

New Pioneers Project to Eliminate Sex Bias in Occupational Education. Contact: Amanda Smith, Division of Equal Education, State Department of Education, Raleigh, NC 27611, (919) 733-3551. A strategic model has been developed for changing the education system to accommodate a wider variety of educational and occupational choices for women and men. An inservice program was used to initiate state and local planning to change occupational education programs and structure to accommodate the needs and interests of female and male students. Limited numbers of resource materials are available upon request.

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1. Permission to reprint granted by The Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210. (614) 486-3655.

Project HEAR (Human Educational Awareness Resource). Contact: Robert B. Francis, Coordinator for Dissemination, Department of Education, 225 West State St., P.O. Box 2019, Trenton, NJ 08608, (609) 292-4469. Three multimedia career awareness learning units were developed for the primary, intermediate, and secondary levels. The units emphasize eliminating sex stereotyping and are being installed throughout New Jersey.

Project to Eliminate Sex Bias in Vocational Education. Contact: Deborah Dillon, Project Coordinator, Arizona Department of Education, 1535 West Jefferson, Phoenix, AZ 85007, (602) 271-4361. A list of resource materials for vocational educators in Arizona has been assembled. Inservice workshops are being planned for teachers and administrators. A past state-wide awareness activity is described in *Clinics for Administrators of Women in Occupational Education. Final Report 1974-1975* by Barkley, Manning and Wooldridge. (ED 122 130 available from EDRS MF $0.83-HC $4.67 plus postage.)

A Qualitative Incremental Improvement to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in the Career Choices of Junior High Students. Contact: Robert E. Blum, Coordinator, Career Education, or Robert Evans, Resource Specialist, Language Arts, Jefferson County Public Schools, 1209 Quail St., Lakewood, CO 80215, (303) 234-7000. Program materials entitled *The Now and the Future* were developed for career exploration activities in Junior High grades during the 1976-1977 school year. Emphasis is placed on career exploration and eliminating sex stereotyping of occupations.

Sex Bias and Sex Discrimination in Vocational Education--Guilty or Not Guilty? Contact: Marge Harouff, Vocational Home Economics Department, State Department of Education, 301 Centennial Mall South, Lincoln, NE 68509, (402) 471-2476. Workshops were conducted during the summer of 1977 in a state-wide inservice training effort to eliminate sex stereotypes among home economics teachers and students. A learning activity package, containing self-evaluation materials, performance objectives, exercises in reviewing materials, and preparation of nonsexist classroom materials was used.

Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping Project. Contact: Lois McGovern, Project Director, District 1916 Vo-Tech, 3300 Century Ave., White Bear Lake, MN 55110, (612) 770-2351. A list of actions to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping has been developed by a state-wide advisory council on women. The council reviewed vocational brochures for sexist language, art-work, and procedures for student inquiry and directed that changes be made in sex-biased material.

Special Vocational Needs of Women. Contact: Connie Beasley, Sex Equity Administrator, Illinois Office of Education, Department of Adult, Vocational & Technical Education, 100 North First St., Springfield, IL 62777, (207) 782-4620. This project began with a needs assessment; produced a field-tested five-lesson curriculum entitled *Expanding Career Horizons* for use in secondary classes; and developed a film *When I Grow Up...* on the process of stereotyping for use in awareness workshops with teachers, counselors and administrators. The curriculum will be disseminated and the film available for purchase by fall, 1977.

REPORTS AND PRODUCTS

Guidance and Career Exploration

Career Guidance Materials: Implications for Women's Career Development. Research and Development Series No. 97. Louise Vetter et al. The Center for Vocational Education, 1974, 90 p. (Available from: The Center for Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, OH 43210; $6.00 or EDRS MF$0.83-HC-$4.67 plus postage. ED 106 542.) A sex-role stereotyping content analysis was conducted of more than 9,500 pages and 1,850 illustrations of high school guidance materials. The report offers representative stereotyped and nonstereotyped quotations from the materials. The assessment instrument is appended.

Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories. National Institute of Education, Washington, DC, 1974, 13 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC $1.67 plus postage. ED 098 314.) These guidelines resulted from a three-day workshop and address the diverse concerns of inventory users, respondents, authors, and publishers. They are grouped in three sections: recommendations on the form and content of the interest inventory; recommendations on the presentation and interpretation of materials, reporting scores, composition of criterion groups, investigation of validity of interest inventories, and provisions for updating; and discussion on the quality of interpretive information provided in the publishers' manual and supporting materials.

A Handbook for Workshops on Sex Equality in Education. Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard. American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976, 81 p. (Available from: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20029. Free--quantities limited to one per customer, may be reproduced with proper credit.) This handbook contains resources and information for use in conducting workshops on sex equality in education. This is one of several technical assistance products generated by the Sex Equality in Guidance Opportunities Projects (SEGO). The Appendix contains the names and addresses of the 50 state SEGO trainers.

New Career Options for Women. Helen S. Farmer and Thomas E. Backer. Human Interaction Research Institute, 1977. Three volumes, 624 total pages. (Available from: Human Interaction Research Institute, Kirkeby Center, Suite 1120, 10889 Wilshire Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90024, $25.48 for the set.) This publication contains three parts. *A Counselor's Sourcebook* (400 p., hard, $16.95) addresses counselors in educational institutions, public service agencies, and counselor educators. It lists resources, counseling strategies and ways to change stereotyped attitudes. *A Women's Guide* (96 p., soft, $4.95--bulk rate of 10 or more--$3.95) summarizes major topics covered in the sourcebook plus contains material for women returning to work. It may be used independently or as part of counseling. *A Selected Annotated Bibliography* (128 pp., hard, $9.95) contains 240 citations of books, journals, articles, and reports from economics, sociology, anthropology and psychology pertaining to women and work.

Reducing Sex Bias--Factors Affecting the Clients' View of the Use of Career Interest Inventories. Janice M. Birk. Aries Corporation, 1974, 49 p. (EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$2.06 plus postage. ED 095 367.) Research is reviewed relating to sex bias in use of interest inventories from the clients' view of the career exploration process. Manuals and interpretive materials have suggestions and implications which could have harmful effects on women clients. Corrective interventions are discussed.

Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit. Abt Publications, 1975, 265 p. (Available from: Abt Publications, 55 Wheeler St., Cambridge, MA 02138, $15.00 plus shipping.) A self-administered curriculum for counselors, counselor educators, teachers, and students, this curriculum is organized into four chapters dealing with orientation to sex fairness, recommendations for a sex-fair career guidance program, sex-fair use and interpretation of interest inventories, and a resource guide. There are a variety of supplementary materials for duplication and use with the activities.

Sex Role Socialization and Employment Realities: Implications for Vocational Interest Measures. ACT Research Report No. 68. Dale J. Prediger, Nancy S. Cole. American College Testing Program, 1975, 14 p. (Available from: ACT Publications, American College Testing Program, P.O. Box 168, Iowa City, IA 52240. $1.00 prepaid or EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$1.67 plus postage. ED 112 271.) Reporting and validation procedures which minimize sex stereotypes are suggested. Career counseling problems arising from interests and current employment realities are discussed.

Women and the World of Work. A Career Education Resource Guide. Minnesota Guidance Series. Learning Opportunities Package G. Richard J. Thoni et al. Minnesota University, 1972, 36 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$2.06 plus postage. ED 128 550.) This package is designed to help students examine the significance of women and their relation to the world of work through the use of seven enabling objectives and related learning experiences. Activities related to the enabling objectives are appended.

Secondary Vocational Education Programs

Attempts to Overcome Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education. Morgan V. Lewis et al. Institute for Research on Human Resources, 1976, 273 p. (Available from: The Institute for Research on Human Resources, The Pennsylvania State University, 407 Kern Graduate Building, University Park, PA 16802. $10.00 prepaid to The Pennsylvania State University.) School staff and students from eleven schools with five or more women enrolled in nontraditional courses were surveyed and interviewed. The report describes the various influences on career decisions of the students and makes recommendations for increasing participation in nontraditional courses.

Equal Vocational Education. Final Report. Jane Lerner et al. Houston Center for Human Resources, 1976, 99 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$4.67 plus postage. ED 133 464.) A model program was designed for increasing and maintaining female enrollment in nontraditional programs. This report describes the procedures used in awareness activities, active recruitment, and support counseling.

"A Facelift for Industrial Arts." *Man/Society/Technology.* Deborah D. Patterson. December 1974, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp. 85-86. This article describes a slide show depicting young women in industrial arts activities which can be used for recruiting more females into industrial arts classes. A script, suggestions for taking appropriate slides, and directions on putting the two together are included.

The Masculine Focus in Home Economics. Judy H. Dowell, Bonnie B. Greenwood. Home Economics Association, Washington, DC, 1975, 31 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$2.06 plus postage. ED 116 002.) This booklet suggests strategies for recruiting and teaching young men in home economics classes. There is an analysis of the "masculine image" and existing barriers, including teacher attitudes.

"Stamping Out Sex Stereotypes in North Carolina." *American Vocational Journal.* Amanda J. Smith. April 1976, Vol. 51, No. 4, pp. 30-33. This article describes the procedures used in the New Pioneers Project to eliminate sex stereotyping in North Carolina vocational education programs. These procedures include meeting with local directors of vocational education; awareness campaigns for parents, teachers, and students; the development of a media package; and recruitment of students into nontraditional vocational courses.

Women in the Work Force: Development and Field Testing of Curriculum Materials. Final Report. Louise Vetter, Barbara J. Sethney. The Center for Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, 1972, 62 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$3.50 plus postage. ED 072 175.) Curriculum materials, and associated measures of knowledge, attitudes, and plans were developed and pilot tested with 100 7th, 9th, and 11th grade girls to aid girls in considering future alternatives and making plans for labor force participation and adult female roles.

Postsecondary Recruitment and Training Programs

The Minority Women Employment Program: A National Demonstration Project to Facilitate Entry of Minority Women into Managerial, Professional, and Technical Occupations, Vol. I and II. Robert W. Glover, Paula S. Greenfield. The Center for the Study of Human Resources, The University of Texas at Austin, 1976, 88 p., 153 p. (Available from: National Technical Information Service, U.S. Department of Commerce, 5285 Port Royal Road, Springfield, VA 22151. Vol. I: NTIS No. PB 264940/AS, $5.00; Vol. II: NTIS No. PB 264941/AS, $4.50.) The outreach model was used to locate jobs, to recruit qualified minority women, and to prepare those women for employment in managerial, professional, and technical occupations. Project conclusions and recommendations are given. Volume II presents demographic data on all women placed in seven demonstration sites.

Non-Traditional Job Opportunities. Fran Chaffin, Program Director, Lower Columbia College, 1600 Maple, Longview, WA 98632, (206) 577-2393. This program prepares qualified women for nontraditional occupations. During a series of eight to ten sessions, the women are given job readiness assistance and job and/or training experiences in coordination with other agencies or resources. Services offered by the program include assessment of each applicant to determine nontraditional interests and aptitudes, counseling, preparation for and referral to training or employment, developing jobs and placing enrollees, and follow-up on all women enrolled as to their progress and problems.

Steps to Opening the Skilled Trades to Women. Women's Bureau, Department of Labor, Washington, DC, 1974, 9 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$1.67 plus postage. ED 099 546.) This booklet explains that employers' and unions' attitude toward and acceptance in practice of the equal capacity of women to function in the skilled trades and other apprentice-type jobs depend on their knowledge of facts, actual experience, and understanding of equal opportunity laws. Steps are outlined to increase the employment of women in the skilled trades and to better utilize women workers when they have been hired. Actions that unions can take to open skilled trades to women, advice to women on accelerating their entry into skilled trades and special programs now underway to help women enter the skilled trades are described.

A Study of the Factors Influencing the Participation of Women in Non-Traditional Occupations in Postsecondary Area Vocational Training Schools, Vol. I. Roslyn D. Kane et al. Rj Associates, Inc., Arlington, VA, 1976, 189 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$10.03 plus postage. ED 132 429.) The characteristics of women who choose nontraditional training programs and their problems and counseling programs are discussed. Women in nontraditional, traditional and mixed programs are compared.

WENDI (Women's Education Development Incentive). Kay Elledge, Program Director, Office of Continuing Education for Women, Brevard Community College, 1519 Clearlake Road, Cocoa, FL 32922, (305) 632-1111. The program is designed for disadvantaged women forced to make the transition from the role of homemaker to wage earner. It provides support courses, counseling, and practical job experiences. An information newsletter is available outlining the history of the project, funding, impact, staffing, public relations, minority outreach, curriculum, and specific contact people on the staff available to provide further information.

"Why Not a Woman?" American Education. Janice Sedaka. December 1975, Vol. 2, No. 10, pp. 11-15. This article describes the Women in New Careers (WINC) Project conducted by CONSAD Research Corporation, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. WINC was designed to develop and test a model career development program for women enrolled in Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) skills centers. Five test sites offered training to underemployed and unemployed women in occupations traditionally open only to men. Materials were developed for recruitment, orientation, self-concept enhancement, and support counseling.

Women in Apprenticeship--Why Not? Final Report. Patricia Mapp. Wisconsin State Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations, 1973, 268 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$14.05 plus postage. ED 086 880.) The project attempted to isolate, analyze and minimize barriers to the participation of women in the skilled trades through awareness campaigns, personal contacts, and surveys; the changes initiated because of these actions; and recommendations for future action. Copies of promotional material and specific strategies for recruiting, maintaining, and placing women in apprenticeship placements are included. Manpower Research Monograph No. 33 *Women in Apprenticeship--Why Not?* by Norma Briggs is a 34 page summary of insights gained and changes catalyzed throughout the three-year project. It is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for $0.75.

General Information and Evaluation

Complying with Title IX: Implementing Institutional Self-Evaluation. Martha Matthews, Shirley McCune. Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1976, 141 p. (Available from: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington, DC 20036. $3.00 prepaid.) The implications of Title IX are discussed. Self-evaluation outlines and action checklists for specific educational programs including vocational education and counseling are provided. Also included are guidelines for institutional evaluation.

A Model to Retrain Women Teachers and Skilled Women as Teachers in Non-Traditional Vocational Programs. Roslyn Kane et al. Rj Associates, Washington, DC, 1977. (Available from: Mary Lovell, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Office of Education, 400 Maryland Ave., SW, Rm. 4147, Washington, DC 20202, (202) 245-8176. Single copies free.) This handbook offers two retraining models: a general model which covers certification requirements, characteristics of the women and the time required to attain skill levels; and a conceptual model which offers five designs for specific types of programs from industrial arts to agriculture. Also included are planning guidelines applications to an industrial arts program and techniques and programs to respond to special needs such as child care and counseling.

Moving Women into Educational Administration. Bernard W. Kaye. 107th American Association of School Administrators Annual Convention, 1975, 23 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$1.67 plus postage. ED 105 549.) The author outlines past and present imbalances to rigid sex-role stereotypes and offers specific suggestions for moving women into educational administration.

The Vocational Preparation of Women: Report and Recommendations of the Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women. JoAnn M. Steiger, Sara Cooper. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. 1975, 76 p. (Available from: EDRS M+$0.83-HC-$4.67 plus postage. ED 120 402 or Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402, $1.55.) This report gives Education Subcommittee findings regarding the impact of federal vocational education legislation and HEW policies on women. Appended materials list research and development projects dealing with careers and vocational education for women under states and HEW.

Women in Vocational Education: Project Baseline Supplemental Report. Marilyn Steele. Northern Arizona University, 1974, 154 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$8.69 plus postage. ED 099 689.) This report reviews the current status of women in vocational education to determine if there is a cause-effect relationship between school practices and limited job options for women in the world of work. Recommendations are made to bring about equal educational opportunities in vocational education.

Women and Work. R&D Monograph 46. Patricia C. Sexton, U.S. Department of Labor, 1977, 71 p. (Available from: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402, $2.20.) Data is presented on male-female earnings gap, women's labor market experience, research on women's employment problems, upgrading women's employment, manpower programs and women, government and women workers, and implications for future programs. One chapter reviews major recruitment, training, and placement projects. Several chapters have implications for preparing women workers, counseling procedures, and adult programs.

REFERRALS AND REFERENCES

Organizations

The Center for Vocational Education. The Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, OH 43210, (614) 486-3655. The Center focused on the needs and interests of women in the areas of guidance and career development. A curriculum unit for career planning for women; an assessment of career materials and the implications for women's career development; a research study on career patterns of women; and several information analysis, review, and synthesis papers have been produced. Current efforts include producing a parent handbook on the career implications of sex stereotyping; developing a model for upgrading underemployed women in business and education; and the development of two training packages for the new vocational education "sex equity" personnel.

Center for Women's Opportunities. American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1 DuPont Circle, NW, Suite 410, Washington, DC 20036, (202) 293-7050. The Center is currently assessing the status of women in two-year colleges in regards to opportunities to pursue technical and semi-professional skills. The final report will offer recommendations for counseling, financial aid, placement, admission, and training for women in postsecondary schools. A selected bibliography and newsletter are available.

Ellis Associates. P.O. Box 466, College Park, MD 20740, (301) 864-7600. This organization conducts staff development activities addressing sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in vocational education. They have designed three training packages for use in inservice and preservice training of vocational educators to help expand nontraditional opportunities in vocational education.

The Federal Education Project. Lawyer's Committee for Civil Rights Under the Law, Suite 520, 733 15th St., NW, Washington, DC 20005, (202) 628-6700. Technical assistance and information is provided to individuals and organizations concerned about equal opportunity in vocational education. They produce a monthly newsletter containing articles on current developments affecting sex bias in vocational education, especially in the areas of federal legislation, rule-making and enforcement activities. Future activities include publication of a pamphlet outlining the provisions of the 1976 Vocational Education Act Amendment, a handbook on model programs for eliminating bias and stereotyping; and a report on the quality and content of state five-year plans for vocational education.

L. Miranda and Associates. 4701 Willard Ave., Suite 102, Chevy Chase, MD 20015, (301) 656-8684. This organization has implemented a "Business and Management Development Program for Minority Women" to train Hispanic women in management techniques. They conducted a conference on "Non-traditional Occupations for Women of the Hemisphere--the U.S. Experience" sponsored by the U.S. Delegate to the Inter-American Commission of Women of the Organization of American States and the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. The report was prepared in both English and Spanish.

New Directions for Young Women. 2201 North Country Club, Tucscon, AZ 85716, (602) 327-4261. New Directions explores the impact of sex-role stereotyping and its effects on possible career and employment options for young women. They present and sponsor workshops for young women and adults; provide consultation services for community agencies and schools; present workshops on sex-role stereotyping, non-sexist curriculum, and sex bias for school personnel. The staff is currently developing a program called the Sex Stereotyping Awareness Tool (SSAT) to increase educators' and counselors' awareness and knowledge of the special vocational needs of young women.

PEER (Project on Equal Education Rights). 1029 Vermont Ave., NW, Suite 800, Washington, DC 20005, (202) 332-7337. PEER monitors and publicizes enforcement progress and problems as federal and local programs and schools implement Title IX. They provide information to individuals and organizations, a newsletter, free publications on resources to eliminate sexism in schools; reprints of articles, and information papers on women.

The Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education. National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Room 701, Washington, DC 20036, (202) 833-5426. This organization has produced several publications dealing with the elimination of sex discrimination, sex bias, and sex stereotyping in education and publishes a newsletter, *Research/Action Notes*, containing information on activities and resources relating to the alleviation of sexism in elementary-secondary education. Currently, they are developing training materials for vocational educators to eliminate sex-role stereotyping in vocational education.

Steiger, Fink, Kosecoff, Inc., 1313 Dolly Madison Blvd., Rm. 127, McLean, VA 22101, (703) 893-5715; or 9060 Santa Monica Blvd., Suite 108, Los Angeles, CA 90069, (213) 276-1315. This organization conducts staff training workshops on sex fairness in vocational education. They have developed staff development materials, curriculum materiasl for secondary school students and have conducted research and evaluation projects. They are currently involved in the Vocational Equity Study, a national assessment of sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education.

Rj Associates. 1018 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22209, (703) 524-3360. This organization conducts and publishes research on women in vocational education. They have completed a study on the factors influencing the participation of women in non-traditional vocational programs in postsecondary schools. They are completing a similar study of students at the secondary level, developing a model to retrain women teachers and skilled women as teachers in non-traditional vocational programs and conducting a study of women's participation in apprenticeship programs.

Women on Words and Images. P.O. Box 2163, Princeton, NJ 08540, (609) 921-8653. This group has reviewed textbook and curriculum material in elementary and secondary grades for sexism. They have published several reports and guidelines for evaluation of texts. Guidelines to evaluate sex stereotyping in vocational education material will be available in the fall, 1977.

Women's Bureau. Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, DC 20210, (202) 523-6611. The Bureau has produced many reports on the status of women in the labor force; booklets, pamphlets, and handbooks for women, educators, and employers; project reports on women and employers; and project reports on women and training. A publication list is available.

Young Women's Company. 2813 South Sixth Ave., Tucson, AZ 85713, (602) 622-1146. The Company is a vocational counseling and nontraditional job training organization working with young women 14-18 years old. The clients attend classes on value clarification, assertiveness training, and basic job finding skills; then register for vocational classes. Independent living skills groups are available for support. Job placement is part of the program.

Bibliographies

Exemplary Strategies for Elimination of Sex Bias in Vocational Education Programs. Final Report. Sheila M. Maher. Human Resources Management, Inc., Washington, DC, 1976. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$3.50 plus postage. ED 133 523.) Annotated descriptions of projects and strategies for eliminating sex bias in vocational education are provided. Four categories of resources are listed: individuals and organizations, materials, projects, and studies.

Women in Non-Traditional Occupations: A Bibliography. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, 1976, 189 p. (Available from: EDRS MF-$0.83-HC-$10.03 plus postage. ED 133 460.) This provides resources for promoting the training of females in nontraditional areas. Included are overview materials, materials on women in both nontraditional skilled/vocational and professional occupations, resources for additional information and sources for materials.

NON-PRINT MEDIA

American Man: Tradition and Change. Butterick Publishing, 161 Sixth Ave., New York, NY 10013, 1976. 12 minutes each, color, sound filmstrips. $45.00 purchase. This unit of two sound filmstrips introduces the concept of sex-role stereotyping to high school students. Part I, "Traditions in Question," explores some of the traditional qualities expected in men. Part II, "Living with Change," uses interviews with both males and females, adults and students to examine some of the problems confronting men because of their role training. A 16-page Teachers' Guide accompanies the unit.

American Women: New Opportunities. Butterick Publishing, 161 Sixth Ave., New York, NY 10013, 1976. 12 minutes each, color, sound filmstrips. $45.00 purchase. This unit of two sound filmstrips helps high school students explore sex-role stereotyping. Part I, "Who are You?" briefly reviews the traditional roles of women and options for the future. Part II, "Who Can You Be?" confronts the problem that even though new opportunities exist, prejudice--both external and internal--still exists. Five women in nontraditional occupations look at how to shape their lives for the most rewarding and satisfying arrangement.

Anything You Want to Be. New Day Films, P.O. Box 315, Franklin Lakes, NJ 07417, 1971. 8 minutes, b/w sound, 16 mm. $115.00 purchase, $17.00 rental. This is a short, fast-paced film showing how society subtly socializes women into accepted stereotypes. The main character is a bright high school girl who is told she can be anything she wants to be, but receives signals that in reality she can't. This film would be useful with junior high students through adults for discussion about societal sex stereotypes.

Different Folks. Agency for Instructional Television, 1111 West 17th St., Bloomington, IN 47401, 1975. 15 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $180.00 purchase. This film is one of a series of fifteen films called *Self Incorporated* aimed at helping 11 to 13 year olds cope with emotional and social problems. *Different Folks* deals with sex-role identification in a changing world from a boy's point of view. The story explores what happens in a family where the mother works outside the home as a veterinarian, the father works at home as an illustrator, and the children share in the housework. A teachers' guide outlines questions for discussion and follow-up activities.

Free to Choose. Film Fare Communications, 10900 Ventura Blvd., Studio City, CA 91604, 1974. 16 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $220.00 purchase, $20.00 rental. This film was produced for junior high to adult audiences. It begins with a brief history of women's rights and social legislation, then focuses on a man in early childhood education, a woman who is head of an architectural urban planning division, a female homemaker, and a working couple with a small child who share household duties and decision making. The purpose of this film is to encourage choice of work and lifestyle based on interests and skills rather than on traditional male-female roles.

Jobs and Gender. Guidance Associates, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017, 1971. 18 minutes, color, sound filmstrips. $48.50 purchase. This two-filmstrip unit presents people who have crossed the sex-work barrier such as a female carpenter, a male nurse, a female reporter, and a male kindergarten teacher. The program challenges junior and senior high school students to examine their own biases and encourages them to explore what they really would like to be. A twenty-nine page Discussion Guide accompanies the unit.

Looking at Tomorrow...What Will You Choose? Churchill Films, 662 North Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90069. 20 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $210.00 purchase. This film is targeted to elementary, junior high, and senior high students and gives a documentary treatment of seven young women at their jobs: lawyer/congressperson, bricklayer, violin maker, telephone frameperson, employment representative, self-employed artist/business owner, air traffic controller, and animal nutritionist. The dialogue focuses on choice, preparation and satisfaction. A teachers' guide presents questions for discussion.

Male and Female Roles. Cornet Instructional Media, 369 W. Erie St., Chicago, IL 60610, 1975. 9 minutes each, color, sound filmstrips. $102.00 purchase. The unit contains six color sound filmstrips entitled "The Stereotypes," "How Stereotypes Evolved," "How They Are Learned," "Emerging Dissatisfactions," "New Perspectives," and "How Aware Are You?" These can be used as an entire unit or each separately to help people from junior high through adults to understand the sociological process of sex stereotyping. A sixteen-page Teachers' Guide gives questions for discussion and extra activities.

Never Underestimate the Power of a Woman. Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, University of Wisconsin-Extension, 1327 University Ave., Madison, WI 53706, 1972. 20 minutes, color, sound 16 mm. $200.00 purchase, $15.50 rental. This film was produced as part of the federally funded project "Women in Apprenticeship--Why Not?" It explores and explodes the myths about women workers by interviewing employers of women and women workers who work at various technical and skilled jobs. The film is geared toward adult audiences--mature women, employers, unions, and vocational adult educators and counselors.

Non-Traditional Careers for Women. Pathescope Educational Media, Inc., 71 Weyman Ave., New Rochelle, NY 10802, 1974. 26 minutes, color, sound filmstrips. $46.00 purchase. This unit contains two sound filmstrips designed to introduce junior and senior high school students and adults to nontraditional careers for women. Part I briefly reviews the history of women's role in the U.S. job market from the 1800's to the present. Part II focuses on particular women working in nontraditional careers, opportunities for training, and the diverse job market for women. This unit has a 21-page Teacher's Manual.

Sexism in School--What We Can Do. Educational Activities, Inc., 1937 Grand Ave., Baldwin, NY 11510, 1976. 18 minutes, color, sound filmstrip. $14.95 purchase. This kit contains a filmstrip, cassette tape, and teacher's guide for use with teachers, administrators, parents and counselors. After some consciousness-raising about the meaning of stereotyping, the results of several well-known studies are discussed, several teaching aides are illustrated and specific suggestions for starting a positive program to combat sexism in school are made. The teacher's guide contains a script; sources of the aides mentioned in the filmstrip; Title IX information; a resource list of books, booklets, publications, and materials; and suggestions for combatting sexism in school.

Women at Work: Choice and Challenge. Guidance Associates, 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017, 1975. 18 minutes, color, sound fimstrips. $48.50 purchase. This unit contains two color, sound filmstrips designed for high school students and adults, to explore the changing role of women in the labor force and alternate lifestyles available to women. Part 1 summarizes the development of women's work roles throughout important periods in United States history. Part 2 interviews a number of women, spouses, children, and co-workers to provide personal insights into the effects of work on women. A 40-page Discussion Guide accompanies the units.

--Prepared by Faith L. Justice and Wesley E. Budke, 1977. This publication was prepared pursuant to a contract (No. 300-77-0012) with the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, U.S. Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Part C of Public Law 90-576). Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Points of view or opinions do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education position or policy.

"Fornbee College: A Role Play"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

A. Objective: Examine arguments in favor of career development education and sex fairness in light of the goals of their institution.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is to give participants a chance to examine the arguments persons in various roles will make regarding career education and sex fairness based on their various roles in a particular college. (Strategy can be adapted to fit your institution.)

Further, the strategy is written to allow participants to look at the arguments from the perspective of the other sex. You as a leader will have to decide whether this addition to the role play should be included or not. For some groups, it may complicate the exercise too much. For other groups it may be very useful; for example, in a college where the issue of career education and sex fairness has become polarized between the women and men, a role reversal may perhaps help each person see the other's perspective better.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Pass out copies of "Fornbee College Description" to the entire group and ask them to read it.

c. Pass out "Fornbee College--Subgroup Assignment" sheets, one to each person.

This exercise requires seven subgroups (Feminist Caucus, Supportive Faculty Coalition, etc.). The number of people in each group will depend on the number of people in the total group.

d. Assign places for the subgroups to meet and have participants meet in their respective groups.

Pass out descriptions of the subgroups to the appropriate subgroup; for example, "Supportive Faculty Coalition" subgroup will receive that description.

e. Then read the following directions:

As you read in the handout "Fornbee College Description," there will be a Board of Trustees meeting of the college community to

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assess reactions and interest in the DHEW proposal. At that meeting each of you will role play as a member of one subgroup. The subgroups are: 1) Board of Trustees, 2) Alumnae and Parent Organizations, 3) Nonsupportive Faculty Coalition, 4) Supportive Faculty Coalition, 5) Feminist Caucus (NOW members, student feminists, etc.), 6) Third World Students' Coalition, and 7) Student Personnel Workers (admissions, counseling, residence hall advisers).

In your subgroups you are to decide strategy and tactics for the community meeting. A description of the subgroup has been given to each subgroup. You are asked to role play as a member of that group* both during the group meeting and the community meeting. The information sheet defines the subgroup in as stereotypic a way as possible but leaves much to your imagination.

f. Participants regroup for the open college community meeting, to be conducted by the subgroup "Board of Trustees."

g. Process the strategy--insights, perceptions, feelings, reactions. Suggested questions are:

   1) How typical of your own institution were your subgroup meetings?
   2) How typical of your own institution were the arguments used, both pro and con, regarding career education and sex fairness?
   3) What were your reactions, feelings, during the subgroup and community meetings?
   4) Did the role play help clarify the positions people take in this area?
   5) Do arguments pro and con regarding career education and sex fairness differ by institution?

h. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 3 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Fornbee College Description"
"Fornbee College--Subgroup Assignment" sheets
"Subgroup Descriptions"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least one major viewpoint of each subgroup regarding their perspective on career education and sex/race fairness.

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* If desired, add here "and as a member of the other sex and/or other racial group."

FORNBEE COLLEGE DESCRIPTION

Background on Fornbee College

Fornbee College was founded in 1841 by the Reverend John Fornbee, a Presbyterian minister of Scotch/English descent. Church-sponsored until 1949, the college still retains some of the traditions of its religious history. Chapel is held once a week, several religion courses are taught on Bible topics, and in particular, the alumnae organization and parents speak often and perceive the college as remaining church-related, even though formal and financial ties with the church have been severed.

The college enrollment is 3,221 full and part-time students. About half are women; third world groups comprise about 8% of the total. Nearly 70% of the students are under 25 years of age. The over-25 age group is increasing and a trend seems in evidence. The college maintains its own residence halls and most students live on campus.

The college has a varied curriculum in the liberal arts. Many pre-professional programs are also offered, e.g., pre-dentistry and pre-engineering. Fornbee enjoys an outstanding reputation in the liberal arts. The fine arts faculty and social sciences faculty at Fornbee hold doctoral degrees for the most part and publish regularly in their respective fields.

Fornbee has been facing, for almost seven years now, a situation of declining enrollments. At the same time, costs have been steadily increasing, and last year the college operated solidly in the red. Massive admissions recruiting efforts have helped some, but nothing done so far has seemed to reverse the trend.

Specific Situation

Two and a half months ago, the President of Fornbee and the Deans of Instruction and Student Services were killed suddenly in a small plane crash. The aircraft belonged to Fornbee College; the trio was returning to the college after attending a regional liberal arts college workshop on financing and retrenching during periods of declining enrollments. An interim President and interim Deans were named and the college, under their leadership, is moving to establish a search committee.

In the meantime, an alumna of Fornbee who has been working as a key aide in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (DHEW) has brought Fornbee's situation to the attention of a DHEW task force working to implement a new federal grant. The new grant, LIBERAL ARTS (Look Inward, Build Equality, Reassess Academic Learning, Accredit Responsibly Tomorrow's Students), seeks to achieve Title IX and Career Education goals as defined by Dr. Ken Hoyt in a typical private liberal arts college. The proposal is to build a showplace in higher education for Title IX and Career Education concepts. Massive federal funding across a five-year time span will accompany the grant award.

Because Fornbee could hire for top administrative positions three key persons who would have in-depth knowledge of career education concepts, and because an exhaustive background analysis of Fornbee reveals that Fornbee is about as typical a college demonstrating the liberal arts tradition as one could find, DHEW has approached the Fornbee College Board of Trustees and has proposed Fornbee become the college chosen for the new grant, LIBERAL ARTS. The Board of Trustees has been asked to respond within 30 days or lose this opportunity.

Plans for Meeting

Accordingly, the Board of Trustees has called a meeting of the college community to assess reactions and interest in the DHEW proposal. Copies of the DHEW letter and an abstract of the grant's intent have been distributed. Subgroups of the college community have formed, and over the last two weeks many meetings and classroom discussions have been held about LIBERAL ARTS around campus. The first meeting of the Board of Trustees open to the entire college community is set for tomorrow.

FORNBEE COLLEGE--SUBGROUP ASSIGNMENT

Your subgroup is ____

Please try to identify what attitudes and concerns would probably be maintained by this group as they viewed the effects of implementing the grant at Fornbee. What perspectives would have high priority (e.g., economics, liberal arts, vocationalism, practicality, traditionalism vis-à-vis appropriate courses and sex roles, survival)?

Remember, you will attend the open meeting as a role player of this subgroup.

Do you wish to have a statement to present that represents your collective thinking? Do you wish to appoint spokespersons? What arguments do you wish to present for or against accepting the grant? Which groups do you see as least likely to be in agreement with you? How will you refute their arguments? What compromises would you be willing to make?

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SUBGROUP DESCRIPTIONS

Board of Trustees - Description

The Board is composed of businesspersons and a few church representatives who are finishing their terms of office. The membership is predominantly male and has only one member who has worked in an academic setting. They understand profit and loss statements, hierarchial organizations with absolute power to hire and fire personnel, people who are doers and producers, and clientele who are consumers. Their major concern is maintaining a "Christian" campus which does good marketing and has fiscal responsibility.

They will be conducting the community meeting.

Alumnae and Parents Organization - Description

This group has been highly concerned about two aspects of the college. The changing cultural mores have created a number of pressures for more liberal rules about student life. Some parents and alumni wish to retain a highly conservative, safe environment in which they can feel sure that students are isolated from "temptations." They are also aware of the high costs of a college education in the context of a difficult job market--several know top graduates who were not accepted in graduate and professional schools and are unable to find anything but menial work.

Nonsupportive Faculty Coalition - Description

This group considers research and writing of highest priority. Their teaching orientation is toward academic excellence and they prefer students who are scholarly and motivated toward graduate school. They feel that some of the current pre-professional programs are too vocational and have already diluted the strong liberal arts tradition. One member is often heard to criticize the admissions office for not finding students who were like they used to be in the past--accomplished in reading, writing, science and math; and dedicated to learning to the exclusion of distractors like activities, dating, and sports.

Supportive Faculty Coalition - Description

This group is mainly composed of newer faculty members who are still struggling for tenure and higher rank. They have failed to get support in the past for implementing such ideas as competency-based credit; internship programs; courses in career development, interpersonal relations and human sexuality; teaching evaluations as a major criterion for promotion. Their members are underrepresented on major faculty committees, especially committees concerned with education policies, curriculum, and personnel. They feel that many faculty are too concerned with rhetoric about liberal arts and preparation of students with no skills truly related to getting and keeping jobs.

Feminist Caucus - Description

This group has been meeting irregularly as an informal group. They are concerned that women are underrepresented on the faculty and that there are no female department chairpersons (except in nursing) or administrators. They have heard of overt sexism, especially in the classes of the Business, Science, and Religion Departments. Female students rarely persist in nontraditional majors. The feminists also suspect that pay scales for women are not equitable, but they cannot get salary data to prove their point.

Third World Students' Coalition - Description

This group has been meeting mainly in various subgroups of particular ethnic and racial designation. Most faculty who are not WASP are only temporary, part time; and requests for minority faculty are countered by arguments that they are unavailable or too expensive. Courses on such topics as "Racism," "Black, Native American, Hispanic History or Literature" and "Third World Topics and Issues" are not in the regular curriculum and, when taught, are usually staffed by visiting faculty. The attrition rate for this population is high. The career aspirations of these students are minimally met by the curriculum and such services as reading and study skills and tutoring are assumed unnecessary for the high quality students admitted to the college.

Student Personnel Workers - Description

This group is split into two factions: one concerned with the manners and morals of students and the rules and regulations of the college, another one trying to emphasize personal and career counseling along with human development emphases. They have tried to do occasional study skills sessions and some career events but are discouraged about participation. The Placement Director feels threatened by worsening statistical reports.

"Analyzing Mission/Goal Statements"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

A. Objective: Examine arguments in favor of career development education and sex fairness in light of the goals of their institution.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to the session the leader should obtain the mission/goal statement of the institutions (or types of institutions) to which participants belong.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Participants should be divided into small groups formed by type of institution (e.g., liberal arts, vocational). Facilitator will hand to each group a copy of the mission/goal statement of the type of institution relevant to each group.

Ask group members to analyze their mission/goal statement and locate evidence or lack of evidence of commitment to facilitating career development of males and females and related sex/race biases.

If no indications of commitment to facilitating career development and reducing sex/race biases are identified, the group should provide a list of at least three ways of altering goal statements and making content sex/race fair and committed to career development of females and males of all races.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: Mission/goal statements of institutions similar to those of participants

Outcome Criterion:

Each small group will present to large group the results of their analyses with specific examples evidencing commitment to career development and sex/race fairness in goal statement, or their critique and suggestions for change.

"Skills Applicable to Many Careers"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

B. Objective: Demonstrate the relation of liberal arts to flexible student planning for occupation and career.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Break into small groups. Give each team two Occupational Outlook Handbook descriptions (attached). Ask them to analyze job descriptions into skills that can be obtained from a liberal arts program. Pass out copies of the chart "Career-Related Skills . . ." (attached) as a resource.

c. Share in large group.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Career-Related Skills . . ." (From Liberal Arts and Sciences to Careers: A Guide, 1975); four descriptions from Occupational Outlook Handbook (1976)
References: Occupational Outlook Handbook (1976); Mayhew (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will describe five ways in which the liberal arts are related to flexible student planning for occupation and career.

CHART A*

CAREER-RELATED SKILLS LEARNED THROUGH LIBERAL ARTS AND SCIENCES ACTIVITIES
(WHAT YOU CAN DO THAT YOU DIDN'T KNOW YOU COULD)

Skills applicable to many careers	Research and Paper Preparation	Oral Presentations	Independent Study	Lab Work	Community Work	Human Relations Labs and Sensitivity Training	Group Projects and Committees	Teaching and Tutorial Work	Publications (Student)
Comprehending written material	●		●	●					●
Writing effectively	●								●
Making effective speeches and presentations		●				●		●	
Identifying problem areas	●		●	●	●		●	●	
Developing new approaches to problems	●		●	●	●		●	●	
Analyzing and evaluating ideas and presentations	●		●	●		●	●	●	●
Using library and research facilities	●		●	●			●		
Conducting surveys and interviews	●				●		●	●	●
Supervising and leading					●	●	●	●	
Cooperating with a work team					●	●	●		●
Persuading others to accept your ideas		●	●		●	●	●	●	●
Helping people with their problems					●	●		●	●
Dealing with the public		●			●	●		●	●
Organizing time effectively	●	●	●	●			●	●	●
Working under deadlines	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●
Planning and organizing	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Working independently	●	●	●	●	●			●	●
Following well-defined instructions	●			●					●
Working on long-term projects	●		●	●	●		●	●	
Doing detailed and accurate work	●		●	●					●
Making mathematical computations, analyzing numerical data, using computers, and analyzing computer printouts	●			●					●

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* Adapted from: From liberal arts and sciences to careers: A Guide. Education Development Center, Newton, Massachusetts. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975. Permission to reprint granted.

FOUR DESCRIPTIONS[1]

TECHNICAL WRITERS
(D.O.T. 139.288)

Nature of the Work

Technical writers organize, write, and edit materials about science and technology in order to establish clearer communication between those who develop information--scientists, engineers, and design technicians--and the users of their information--operators, repairers, scientists, engineers, executives, or consumers. Their writing must always be clear and easy to follow, and when it is to be used by specialists it often must include technical detail and a highly specialized vocabulary. Technical writers usually arrange for the preparation of tables, charts, illustrations, and other artwork, and may work with technical illustrators, drafters, or photographers.

Before starting a writing assignment, technical writers usually learn as much as they can about their subject. This process involves studying reports, reading technical journals, and consulting with the engineers, scientists, and other technical personnel who have worked on the project. Then they prepare a rough draft that may be revised several times before it is accepted in final form.

The technical writer's product takes many forms--publicity releases on a company's scientific or technical achievements, manufacturers' contract proposals to government agencies, manuals that explain how to operate, assemble, disassemble, maintain, or overhaul components of a missile system or a home appliance, or articles for scientific and engineering periodicals or popular magazines.

Places of Employment

An estimated 20,000 technical writers and editors--about one-fifth women--were employed in 1974. Many technical writers are employed in the electronic and aerospace industries. Some work for research and development firms or for the Federal Government--mainly in the Departments of Defense and Agriculture, the Energy Research and Development Administration, and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Others work in firms that specialize in technical writing. A few are in business for themselves as freelance technical writers.

Technical writers are employed all over the country but the largest concentrations are in the Northeastern States, Texas, and California.

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[1] From: Occupational Outlook Handbook. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

Training, Other Qualifications, and Advancement

Although there are no prescribed requirements for entry into the technical writing field, a combination of technical experience and writing ability will generally qualify a person to work as a technical writer.

While a college background is helpful and sometimes necessary, most technical writers do not enter the occupation as recent college graduates. The majority, whatever their level of educational attainment, work initially as technicians, scientists, or engineers. In time, usually as a part of their technical assignment, they assume some writing duties, and develop technical communication skills. Eventually they decide to work entirely in technical writing.

Some employers, however, demand a 4-year college education. Many prefer the applicant to have a degree in science or engineering, with a strong background in English, while others emphasize writing ability.

In 1974, 12 colleges and universities offered 4-year programs leading to a bachelor's degree in technical writing, technical communication, or technical journalism; three schools offered graduate work and degrees in the field. More than 400 4-year colleges offered at least one course in technical writing as part of the regular curriculum. Almost all colleges, and some engineering schools, offer English courses to sharpen writing skills, and some conduct summer workshops and short-term seminars for technical writers.

Besides having writing skills, technical writers should be able to think logically, understand scientific and technical concepts, and do detailed and accurate work. They should be able to work and talk easily with others since they often work as part of a team. At other times, however, technical writers must work alone with little or no supervision, so they must be able to accept responsibility and exercise initiative.

Beginners often assist experienced technical writers by doing library research, and by preparing drafts of reports. Experienced writers in organizations that have large technical writing staffs may advance to technical editor or other supervisory and administrative positions. After gaining experience and contacts, a few go into business for themselves. It also is possible to advance by becoming a specialist in a particular scientific or technical subject. These writers sometimes prepare syndicated newspaper columns or articles for popular magazines.

Employment Outlook

Employment of technical writers is expected to increase about as fast as the average for all occupations through the mid-1980's. In addition to openings due to growth, opportunities will result from the need to replace those who die, retire, or transfer to other occupations. Employment opportunities will be best for experienced technical writers and for beginners who have good writing ability and the appropriate technical education. Those with only minimum qualifications, however, may face stiff competition for beginning jobs.

Requirements for technical writers are expected to increase because of the need to put the growing amount of scientific and technical information into language that can be understood by managers for decisionmaking and by technicians for operating and maintaining complex industrial equipment. Since many products will continue to be assembled from components manufactured by different companies, technical writers also will be needed to describe, in simple terms, how the components fit together. Others will be needed to improve and simplify operating and maintenance instructions for consumer products.

However, since many technical writers work in defense- and space-related activities, including research and development, future job opportunities are related to government expenditures in these areas. Through the mid-1980's, R&D expenditures of Government and industry are expected to increase, although at a slower rate than during the 1960's.

Technical writers, as discussed in this statement, include only those persons whose primary job is to write about, interpret and edit technical subject matter. Those primarily employed as scientists, engineers or other technical specialists who may do a considerable amount of writing are not covered here. As technology becomes increasingly complex, more writing assignmnets may require technical and scientific knowledge equivalent to that of an engineer or scientist.

Technical writers who have training in journalism may find opportunities in other fields that employ writers such as advertising, public relations, trade publishing, and television and radio broadcasting.

Earnings and Working Conditions

Technical writers have high earnings compared with average earnings for nonsupervisory workers in private industry, except farming. Salaries of technical writers depend not only on ability, education, and experience, but also on the type, size, and location of their employing firm.

Starting salaries in 1974 ranged from about $7,000 a year for those with minimala qualifications to over $15,000 a year for those with technical experience and college education. Experienced technical writers average around $17,5000 a year, while those in supervisory positions earned $20,000 or more.

Earnings of freelance writers vary greatly and depend on the writer's ability and reputation.

In the Federal Government in late 1974, inexperienced technical writers with a bachelor's degree and about five science courses could start at either $8,500 or $10,520 a year, depending on their college grades. Those with 2 years of experience could start at $12,841 and with 3 years of experience, $15,481.

Technical writers generally work in clean well-lighted places, though they may work under considerable pressure, frequently working overtime when a publication deadline has to be met.

Sources of Additional Information

For information about careers in technical writing, contact:

Society for Technical Communication, Inc., Suite 421, 1010 Vermont
Ave., NW, Washington D.C. 20005.

INSPECTORS (MANUFACTURING)

Nature of the Work

Most products--including the things we eat, drink, wear, and ride in--are checked by inspectors sometime during the manufacturing process to make sure they are of the desired quality. Inspectors also check the quality of the raw materials and parts that make up finished goods.

Inspectors use a variety of methods to make certain that products meet specifications. They may merely look for flaws, imperfections, or defects; or they may use gauges, micrometers, and other instruments to examine parts and materials. They may read work orders or blueprints and do calculations using decimals or common fractions when measuring. They sometimes use hand-tools, such as screwdrivers, magnifying glasses, and tweezers.

Skilled inspectors work under general supervision, whereas semi-skilled inspectors usually work under close supervision. Generally, skilled inspectors have greater discretion in accepting or rejecting products, and are responsible for inspecting the most important parts of mass-produced goods. Skilled inspectors may also use a wider variety of testing instruments.

Many inspectors count the items rejected. When the number rises above a certain level, they notify their supervisors so that corrections can be made on the production line. Some inspectors make minor repairs and adjustments and grade products for quality.

Places of Employment

About 790,000 inspectors were employed in 1974. Two-thirds worked in plants that produced durable goods such as machinery, transportation equipment, electronics equipment, and furniture. Others worked in plants that produced goods such as textiles, apparel, and leather products.

Inspectors worked in every part of the country, although they are concentrated in the industralized States. Almost-two-thirds are found in Ohio, New York, Michigan, Illinois, Pennsylvania, California, New Jersey, North Carolina, and Indiana.

Training, Other Qualifications, and Advancement

Inspectors generally are trained on the job for a brief period--from a few hours or days to several months, depending upon the skill required.

Employers look for applicants who have good health and eyesight, can follow directions, and can concentrate on details. Applicants should be able to get along with people since inspectors work occasionally as part of a team. A few large companies give preemployment tests to check such skills as the ability to work with numbers. Some employers may hire applicants who do not have a high school diploma but who have qualifying aptitudes or related experience. Other employers prefer experienced production workers for inspection jobs.

Some semiskilled inspectors--particularly in metalworking industries--who take courses, such as blueprint reading and shop mathematics, may advance to skilled inspectors or quality control technicians. After acquiring sufficient experience and knowledge, a few become supervisors.

Employment Outlook

Employment of inspectors is expected to increase faster than the average for all occupations through the mid-1980's, with thousands of openings each year. Most of the industries that employ these workers are expected to increase their output and thus employment in the long run. The growing complexity of manufactured products should also result in a need for more inspectors. Additional openings will result as workers retire, die, or transfer to other occupations.

Inspectors seeking jobs in companies that produce durable goods, which are particularly sensitive to changes in business conditions, may find jobs scarce in some years, plentiful in others.

Earnings and Working Conditions

Wages for inspectors ranged from $2.30 to $6.30 an hour in 1974, according to information from a limited number of union contracts. Most inspectors covered by these contracts earned between $3 and $5.50 an hour.

Working conditions vary considerably for inspectors. For example, some have well-lighted, air-conditioned workplaces in an aircraft or missile plant; others, who work on the production floor of a machinery or metal fabricating plant, often are exposed to high temperatures, oil, grease, and noise.

Many inspectors are members of labor unions, including the International Union, United Automobile, Aerospace and Agricultural Implement Workers of America; the International Association of Machinists and Aerospace Workers; the International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers; and the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers.

Sources of Additional Information

Information about employment opportunities in this field may be available from local offices of the State employment service.

The American Society for Quality Control certifies quality technicians. For information about the test required for certification, write to:

American Society for Quality Control, 161 West Wisconsin Ave.,
Milwaukee, Wis. 53203.

CITY MANAGERS

(D.O.T. 188.118)

Nature of the Work

Population growth and industrial expansion place increasing pressure on housing, transportation, and other facilities of cities. Problems associated with growing modern communities, such as air and water pollution and rising crime rates, also demand attention. To cope effectively with these problems, many communities hire a specialist in management techniques--the city manager.

A city manager is responsible to the community's elected officials who appoint him. Although duties vary by city size, city managers generally administer and coordinate the day-to-day operations of the city. They are responsible for functions such as tax collection and disbursement, law enforcement, and public works; hire department heads and their staffs; and prepare the annual budget to be approved by elected officials. They also study current problems, such as traffic congestion, crime, or urban renewal, and report their findings to the elected council.

City managers must plan for future growth and development of cities and surrounding areas. To provide for an expansion of public services, they frequently appear at civic meetings to advocate certain programs or to inform citizens of current government operations.

City managers work closely with planning departments to coordinate new and existing programs. In smaller cities that have no permanent planning staff, coordination may be assumed entirely by the manager.

Many cities employ assistant city managers, department head assistants, and administrative assistants to aid city managers. Under the manager's direction, they administer programs, prepare reports, receive visitors, answer correspondence, and generally help to keep the city functioning smoothly. Assistant city managers organize and coordinate city programs, supervise city employees, and act for the city manager in their absence. They also may assume responsibility for some projects, such as the development of a preliminary annual budget. Department head assistants generally are responsible for one activity, such as personnel, finance, or law, but also may assist in other areas. Administrative assistants, also called executive assistants or assistants to the city manager, usually do administrative and staff work in all departments under the city manager. For instance, they may compile operating statistics, or review and analyze work procedures.

Places of Employment

About 2,900 city managers were employed in 1974. Although nearly all of them were men, in recent years a growing number of women have entered the occupation. In addition, several thousand persons worked as administrative assistants, department head assistants, and assistant city managers. Most city managers worked for cities and counties having a council-manager form of government, in which the council appoints a manager who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of the government as well as for the hiring and firing of assistants, department heads, and other staff. Most of the remainder worked in municipalities having other forms of government, such as mayor-council government in which the mayor appoints the city manager as his administrative assistant or chief administrative officer. A few city managers also worked for metropolitan or regional planning organizations and councils of governments.

Although over three-quarters of all city managers work for small cities having 25,000 or less inhabitants, many larger cities also employ a city manager. About half of the cities having a population of between 10,000 and 500,000 have city managers. City managers work in all States, but one-half are concentrated in the eastern part of the Nation.

Training, Other Qualifications, and Advancement

A master's degree, generally in public or business administration, is becoming increasingly important for those seeking a career in city management. Although some applicants with only a bachelor's degree may find employment, strong competition for positions, even among master's recipients, will make the graduate degree a requirement for most entry level jobs. In some cases, employers may hire a person with training in a field related to public administration, such as engineering, recreation, social work, or political science.

In 1974, over 150 colleges and universities offered graduate degree programs in public or municipal administration. Degree requirements in some schools include successful completion of an internship program in a city manager's office. During this internship period, which may last from 6 months to a year, the degree candidate observes local government operations and does research under the direct supervision of the city manager.

Most new graduates work as administrative assistants to city managers for several years and gain experience in solving urban problems, coordinating public services, and management techniques. Others work in an area of government operations such as finance, public works, or public planning. They may acquire supervisory skills and additional experience by working as assistant city manager of department head assistant in operations. City managers often are first employed in small cities, but during their careers, they may work in several cities of increasing size.

Young persons who plan a career in city management should like to work with detail and as part of a team. They must have sound judgment, self-confidence, and be able to perform well under stress. To handle emergency situations, city managers must quickly isolate problems, identify their causes, and provide alternate solutions. City managers should be tactful and able to communicate with and work well with people.

City managers also must be dedicated to public service since they often put in long, hard hours in times of crises.

Employment Outlook

This small occupation is expected to expand faster than the average for all occupations to the mid-1980's as problems of our growing cities become more complex. Examples of more sophisticated ways of dealing with these problems include computerized data collection of police information, advances in technology of traffic control, and the application of systems analysis to urban problems. The demand for city managers also will increase as cities convert to the council-manager form of government, currently the fastest growing form of city government. Furthermore, city managers will be needed in places having other forms of government to help elected officials cope with day-to-day operations of government.

Persons who seek beginning city management jobs as administrative assistants, department head assistants, or assistant city managers may face strong competition through the mid-1980's, especially if they do not have a graduate degree in public administration or related management experience. However, many of those unable to find employment in this area should find jobs in other fields of public administration. Competition should be keen among the growing number of administrative assistants, department head assistants, and assistant city managers for the relatively few city manager positions.

Earnings and Working Conditions

Salaries of city managers and their assistants vary according to their education and experience as well as job responsibility and size of city. Generally, city managers' earnings are very high relative to the average earnings for nonsupervisory workers in private industry, except farming. In 1974, annual salaries of city managers ranged from about $12,000 in cities of 5,000 to more than $40,000 in cities of over 250,000, according to the International City Management Association. The average annual salary for all city managers is almost $20,000. City managers in cities not having council-manager governments received slightly less.

Salaries of assistant city managers and department head assistants ranged from about $10,000 in small cities to more than $25,000 in large ones. They were generally paid about three-fourths the salaries paid city managers. Administrative assistant salaries typically ranged from $8,500 to $10,000, annually.

City managers often work more than 40 hours a week. Emergency problems may require evening and weekend work and meetings with individuals and citizen's groups consume additional time.

Fringe benefits usually include health and life insurance programs, pension plans, sick leave, vacation time, and often a car for official business. Managers generally are reimbursed for expenses incurred while attending professional meetings and seminars.

Sources of Additional Information

For information on a career in city management, contact:

International City Management Association, 1140 Connecticut Ave., NW,
Washington, D.C. 20036.

For further information on the council manager form of government, contact:

National Municipal League, 47 E. 68th St., New York, N.Y. 10021.

DISPLAY WORKERS (RETAIL TRADE)

(D.O.T. 298.081)

Nature of the Work

It happens every shopping day: A person browsing through a clothing store notices a mannequin wearing an attractive suit and, without having planned to, purchases a similar outfit. A fishing enthusiast sees a display of angling equipment in a store window, goes in, and buys a new reel.

Incidents like these show how displays in stores and store windows can attract customers and encourage them to buy. Knowing the effectiveness of this form of advertising, some stores allot a large share of their publicity budget to displays.

Display workers specialize in designing and installing such exhibits. Their aim is to develop attractive, eye-catching ways of showing store merchandise to best advantage. To create a setting that enhances the merchandise, display workers need imagination as well as knowledge of color harmony, composition, and other fundamentals of art. They may, for example, choose a theme--a beach setting to advertise bathing suits or surfing equipment--and design a colorful display around this theme. After the design has been approved by the store's management, display workers obtain the props and other necessary accessories. This is where their craft skills come into play.

Display workers often construct many of the props themselves using hammers, saws, spray guns, and other tools. They may be assisted in these tasks by a helper or by store maintenance workers. Display workers also may use props out of storage, designed for previous displays, or order props from firms which specialize in them. The display workers install the props, background settings, and lighting equipment. They also dress mannequins and add finishing touches. Periodically, they dismantle old displays and replace them with new ones.

In large stores that employ several display workers, each may specialize in a particular activity such as carpentry, painting, making signs, or setting up displays. Overall planning and administration in large stores is usually the responsibility of a display director who supervises and coordinates the activities of the department. The director confers with architects and executives, such as advertising and sales managers, to select merchandise to be promoted and to design displays.

Places of Employment

About 34,000 persons worked as display workers in retail stores in 1974. Most worked in department, clothing, and home furnishing stores; others in variety, drug, and shoe stores and in book and gift shops. Several thousand additional freelance or self-employed display workers serviced small stores that needed professional window dressing but could not afford full-time display workers. Freelancers are among the most highly skilled workers in this field.

While major department stores may have as many as 30 or 40 display workers, most stores have only one or two.

Relatively little money is needed to start a freelance business, but since this is a highly competitive field, self-employment is likely to be a struggle, particularly at the outset.

The display worker's skills could lead to jobs in other art-related occupations such as interior decoration or photography. These occupations, however, require additional training.

Employment Outlook

Employment of display workers is expected to grow about as fast as the average for all occupations through the mid-1980's. The chief spur to employment gails will be the construction of additional stores as population grows. Also, many stores are placing greater emphasis on window and interior displays as a means to stimulate sales. In addition to the jobs resulting from employment growth, many openings will arise each year to replace experienced workers who retire, die, or transfer to other occupations.

Employment opportunities will be concentrated in large stores, most of which are located in metropolitan areas. Although many jobs will be available for applicants who have no more than a high school education, opportunities will be best for those who have completed college courses in art, interior decorating, fashion design, advertising, or related subjects.

Earnings and Working Conditions

Among large employers, weekly salaries for beginners ranged from $80 to $125 in 1974. Beginners who have completed college courses in art, interior decorating, or related subjects generally receive the higher starting salaries.

Experienced display workers' salaries range from $120 to $225 a week, depending largely on experience and ability. Most display directors earn between $10,000 and $15,000 a year. Experienced directors in large metropolitan stores may earn considerably more, particularly those who occupy executive positions.

The earnings of freelancers depend on their talent and prestige, on the number and kinds of stores they service, and on the amount of time they devote to the work. Many freelancers earn more than $15,000 a year, and some earn more than $30,000.

Display personnel enjoy the satisfaction of doing creative work. Developing an original design and transforming it into reality can be a highly rewarding experience.

Display workers usually work 35 to 40 hours a week. During busy seasons, such as Christmas and Easter, they may work overtime, nights, and weekends to prepare special displays.

Constructing and installing props frequently require prolonged standing, bending, stooping, and working in awkward positions. Display workers risk injury from falls off ladders, from contact with sharp or rough materials, and from the use of power tools, but serious injuries are uncommon.

Sources of Additional Information

Details on career opportunities can be obtained from local retailers, such as department stores, and from local offices of the State employment service.

"Curriculum and Career Development"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

B. Objective: Demonstrate the relation of liberal arts to flexible student planning for occupation and career.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy may be used together with IV.A.3., "Analyzing Mission/Goal Statements." Participants may then be asked to identify whether and in what ways the curriculum followed by a typical liberal arts student is related to the mission/goal statement of the college.

Prior to activity, leader should collect college catalogs or ask participants to bring them.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Form small groups. Distribute college catalogs of liberal arts colleges to the groups. Have groups identify the courses and experiences required by a college for graduation and made available for students. Specifically, ask them to identify:

   1) Ways in which this curriculum may facilitate self-assessment and awareness (of values, aptitudes, interests, skills and personal limitations); personal and interpersonal growth; awareness of environmental opportunities and limitations; career awareness and reality testing.

   2) Other courses or experiences which are or should be available to students in order to facilitate a satisfying and knowledgeable career option.

c. Share results in large group.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed: College catalogs; the chart attached to IV.B.1., "Skills Applicable to Many Careers"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will create a short outline listing at least five ways in which a liberal arts education could facilitate flexible career development, planning, and choice.

E SR-H
CD-M TL-H

IV.C.1.

"Sex-Role Transcenders"

IV. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL CONCEPTUALIZE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AIMS AND VALUES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT.

C. Objective: Generate a list of alternative career or life-style options within their own discipline or interest area.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The research of Rebecca, Hefner, and Oleshansky (1976) described three stages of sex-role development through which individuals progress: Stage I is an undifferentiated stage in which a child's thinking is global and undifferentiated in conception of behavior, including sex roles. Stage II is that of polarized sex roles in which children have learned role prescriptions and have a dichotomous or oppositional view of sex roles as masculine/feminine. Stage III is one of sex-role transcendence, a highly dynamic stage in which individuals move freely from one situation to another, behave adaptively, and choose behaviors from the whole range of human possibilities. There is a transcending of stereotypes which allows and fosters choice of and adaptation to varied life styles and occupations. It differs from the concept of androgyny in that the latter assumes within each individual male/female characteristics. As some view androgyny, however, it might be placed at a stage between polarization and transcendence. Workshop leader should read the above article prior to leading this strategy.

Instructions:

a. Explain the stages of sex-role development as presented in the article by Rebecca et al. (1976).

b. Have participants role play a situation depicting each of the stages of sex-role development, showing how a polarized person, an androgynous person, and a sex-role transcender might deal with a similar situation.

c. Discuss. Suggested questions are:

1) What are the advantages or disadvantages of each of the stages?
2) What factors cause an individual to remain at one stage or to move on to another?
3) How do concepts of androgyny fit the model?
4) How does sex-role development relate to career decisions and plans?
5) What are the implications for the future if all persons achieved the stage of sex-role transcendence?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Reference: Rebecca, Hefner, and Oleshansky (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will describe the three stages of sex-role development and their implications for career decision making.

Goal V

PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Trace the interaction among various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.

  1. Ways to Live: A Values Exercise
  2. Time Pie

B. Describe the ways in which religion contributes to socialization into traditional sex roles.

  1. Jesus Was a Feminist
  2. Messages
  3. Biblical Sex Roles

C. Compare recent reforms in language and in leadership roles within religious institutions with earlier patterns and trace the influence of each on career development and sex-role socialization.

  1. New Language for the Gospel
  2. Career Patterns and Religious Institutions
  3. Men and Women in Religious Leadership Roles

"Ways to Live: A Values Exercise"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

A. Objective: Trace the interaction among various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass out to each participant "Ways to Live," copies of descriptions of thirteen life styles, and ask them to read and rank-order the items in terms of preference from 1 (most desirable) to 13 (least desirable) as ways they themselves would most like to live.

c. Ask participants to write a personal, ideal life-style description, using statements from any of the descriptions and/or their own ideas.

d. Each participant next chooses a partner with a different occupation from his/her own (if possible) and discusses the similarities and differences in life-style choices.

e. Finally, each participant is asked to list five things she/he has done within the last two weeks which are consistent with his/her desired personal life style and five things that are not consistent with it.

After the list is completed, she/he is asked to go back over it and to mark a W by those activities that are job or work related. (If time permits, discuss in small groups.)

f. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, paper
Handout: "Ways to Live" (Simon et al., 1972)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete a personal value statement and list of work-related activities.

STRATEGY NUMBER 67: WAYS TO LIVE[1]

PURPOSE

This strategy asks students to formulate their own philosophy of life by responding to 13 other ways to live. It leads to the consideration of alternative life styles, and causes students to more thoughtfully consider their own life styles.

PROCEDURE

The teacher passes out copies of the worksheet, Ways to Live. (See below.) When students have responded to the 13 ways to live, they are to rank order all 13, from their first preference to their last.

The teacher then has the students choose partners. Each pair discusses one or two ways to live to which they had quite different reactions. They spend five minutes discussing their differences and trying to understand the other person's point of view. Then each one finds a new partner and repeats the discussion procedure. This may be repeated several times.

Then, each student writes out his own way to live statement, reflecting his own philosophy of life at this point in his life. Students can borrow phrases or sentences from any of the 13 described here, or they can create their own wording and ideas.

Finally, students are asked to think of ten things they have done in the last week that are consistent with the philosophy of life or the way to live they have just described. This bridges the gap between a general philosophical statement and the way we actually live.

I Wonder Statements (Strategy Number 16) are a good conclusion to this thought-provoking exercise.

WORKSHEET

Ways to Live[2]

Instructions: Below are described thirteen ways to live which various persons, at various times, have advocated and followed.

You are to write numbers in the margin to indicate how much you yourself like or dislike each of these ways to live. Do them in order, one after the other.

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[1] From Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students by Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe and Howard Kirschebaum, copyright 1972 Hart Publishing Company, Inc.

[2] Reproduced with permission of author: Questionnaire from Varieties of Human Value by Charles Morris, University of Chicago Press, 1956, pp. 15-19.

Remember that it is not a question of what kind of life you now lead, or the kind of life you think it prudent to live in our society, or the kind of life you think would be good for other persons, but simply the kind of life you personally would like to live.

Use the following scale, and write one of these numbers in the margin alongside each of the ways to live:

7 I like it *very much*

6 I like it *quite a lot*

5 I like it *slightly*

4 I am *indifferent to* it

3 I dislike it *slightly*

2 I dislike it *quite a lot*

1 I dislike it *very much*

WAY 1: In this design for living the individual actively participates in the social life of his community, not primarily to change it but to understand, appreciate, and preserve the best that man has attained. In this life style, excessive desires are avoided and moderation is sought. One wants the good things of life, but in an orderly way. Life is to have clarity, balance, refinement, control. Vulgarity, great enthusiasm, irrational behavior, impatience, indulgence are to be avoided. Friendship is to be esteemed, but not easy intimacy with many people. Life is marked by discipline, intelligibility, good manners, predictability. Social changes are to be made slowly and carefully, so that what has been achieved in human culture is not lost. The individual is active physically and socially, but not in a hectic or radical way. Restraint and intelligence should give order to an active life.

WAY 2: In this way of life, the individual for the most part goes it alone, assuring himself of privacy in living quarters, having much time to himself, attempting to control his own life. Emphasis is on self-sufficiency, reflection and meditation, knowledge of oneself. Intimate associations and relationships with social groups are to be avoided, as are the physical manipulation of objects and attempts at control of the physical environment. One should aim to simplify one's external life, to moderate desires which depend upon physical and social forces outside of oneself. One concentrates on refinement, clarification, and self-direction. Not much is to be gained by living outwardly. One must avoid dependence upon persons or things; the center of life should be found within oneself.

WAY 3 This way of life makes central the sympathetic concern for other persons. Affection is the main thing in life, affection that is free from all traces of the imposition of oneself upon others, or of using others for one's own purposes. Greed in possessions, emphasis on sexual passion, striving for power over persons and things, excessive emphasis upon intellect, and undue concern for oneself are to be avoided. These things hinder the sympathetic love among persons which alone gives significance to life. Aggressiveness blocks receptivity to the forces which foster genuine personal growth. One should purify oneself, restrain one's self-assertiveness, and become receptive, appreciative, and helpful in relating to other persons.

WAY 4: Life is something to be enjoyed--sensuously enjoyed, enjoyed with relish and abandonment. The aim in life should not be to control the course of the world or to change society or the lives of others, but to be open and receptive to things and persons, and to delight in them. Life is a festival not a workshop or a school for moral discipline. To let oneself go, to let things and persons affect oneself, is more important than to do--or to do good. Such enjoyment requires that one be self-centered enough to be keenly aware of what is happening within in order to be free for new happiness. One should avoid entanglements, should not be too dependent on particular people or things, should not be self-sacrificing; one should be alone a lot, should have time for meditation and awareness of oneself. Both solitude and sociability are necessary for the good life.

WAY 5: This way of life stresses the social group rather than the individual. A person should not focus on himself, withdraw from people, be aloof and self-centered. Rather he should merge himself with a social group. enjoy cooperation and companionship, join with others in resolute activity for the realization of common goals. Persons are social and persons are active; life should merge energetic group activity and cooperative group enjoyment. Meditation, restraint, concern for one's self-sufficiency, abstract intellectuality, solitude, stress on one's possessions all cut the roots which bind persons together. One should live outwardly with gusto, enjoying the good things of life, working with others to secure the things which make possible a pleasant and energetic social life. Those who oppose this ideal are not to be dealt with too tenderly. Life can't be too fastidious.

WAY 6: This philosophy sees life as dynamic and the individual as an active participant. Life continuously tends to stagnate, to become comfortable, to become sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought. Against these tendencies, a person must stress the need for constant activity--physical action, adventure, the realistic solution of specific problems as they appear, the improvement of techniques for controlling the world and society. Man's future depends primarily on what he does, not on what he feels or on his speculations. New problems constantly arise and always will arise. Improvements must always be made if man is to progress. We can't just follow the past or dream of what the future might be. We have to work resolutely and continually if control is to be gained over the forces which threaten us. Man should rely on technical advances made possible by scientific knowledge. He should find his goal in the solution of his problems. The good is the enemy of the better.

WAY 7. This philosophy says that we should at various times and in various ways accept something from all other paths of life, but give no one our exclusive allegiance. At one moment one way may be more appropriate; at another moment another is the most appropriate. Life should contain enjoyment and action and contemplation in about equal amounts. When any one way is carried to extremes, we lose something important for our life. So we must cultivate flexibility; admit diversity in ourselves; accept the tension which this diversity produces; find a place for detachment in the midst of enjoyment and activity. The goal of life is found in the dynamic integration of enjoyment, action, and contemplation, and in the dynamic interaction of the various paths of life. One should use all of them in building a life, and not one alone.

WAY 8: Enjoyment should be the keynote of life. Not the hectic search for intense and exciting pleasures, but the enjoyment of the simple and easily obtainable pleasures; the pleasures of just existing, of savoring food, of comfortable surroundings, of talking with friends, of rest and relaxation. A home that is warm and comfortable, chairs and a bed that are soft, a kitchen well stocked with food, a door open to friends--this is the place to live. Body at ease, relaxed, calm in its movements, not hurried, breath slow and easy, a willingness to nod and to rest, gratitude to the world that feeds the body--so should it be. Driving ambition and the fanaticism of ascetic ideals are the signs of discontented people who have lost the capacity to float in the stream of simple, carefree, wholesome enjoyment.

WAY 9: Receptivity should be the keynote of life. The good things of life come of their own accord, and come unsought. They cannot be found by resolute action. They cannot be found in the indulgence of the sensuous desires of the body. They cannot be gathered by participation in the turmoil of social life. They cannot be given to others by attempts to be helpful. They cannot be garnered by hard thinking. Rather do they come unsought when the bars of the self are down. When the self has ceased to make demands and waits in quiet receptivity, it becomes open to the powers which nourish it and work through it; sustained by these powers, it knows joy and peace. Sitting alone under the trees and the sky, open to nature's voices, calm and receptive, then can the wisdom from without enter within.

WAY 10: Self-control should be the keynote of life. Not the easy self-control which retreats from the world, but the vigilant, stern, manly control of a self which lives in the world, and knows the strength of the world and the limits of human power. The good life is rationally directed and firmly pursues high ideals. It is not bent by the seductive voices of comfort and desire. It does not expect social utopias. It is distrustful of final victories. Too much should not be expected. Yet one can with vigilance hold firm the reins of self, control unruly impulses, understand one's place in the world, guide one's actions by reason, maintain self-reliant independence. And in this way, though he finally perish, man can keep his human dignity and respect, and die with cosmic good manners.

WAY 11: The contemplative life is the good life. The external world is no fit habitat for man. It is too big, too cold, too pressing. It is the life turned inward that is rewarding. The rich internal world of ideals, of sensitive feelings, of reverie, of self-knowledge is man's true home. By the cultivation of the self within, man becomes human. Only then does there arise deep sympathy with all that lives, an understanding of the suffering inherent in life, a realization of the futility of aggressive action, the attainment of contemplative joy. Conceit then falls away and austerity is dissolved. In giving up the world, one finds the larger and finer sea of the inner self.

WAY 12: The use of the body's energy is the secret of a rewarding life. The hands need material to make into something; lumber and stone for building, food to harvest, clay to mold. The muscles are alive to joy only in action: in climbing, running, skiing and the like. Life finds its zest in overcoming, dominating, conquering some obstacle. It is the active deed which is satisfying; the deed that meets the challenge of the present, the daring and the adventuresome deed. Not in cautious foresight, not in relaxed ease does life attain completion. Outward energetic action, the excitement of power in the tangible present--this is the way to live.

WAY 13: A person should let himself be used. Used by other persons in their growth, used by the great objective purposes in the universe which silently and irresistibly achieve their goal. For persons' and the world's purposes are basically dependable and can be trusted. One should be humble, constant, faithful, uninsistent. Grateful for affection and protection, but undemanding. Close to persons and to nature, and willing to be second. Nourishing the good by devotion. One should be a serene, confident, quiet vessel and instrument of the great dependable powers which move to fulfill themselves.

"Time Pie"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

A. Objective: Trace the interaction among various value systems and life/career expectations for women and men.

3. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Distribute "Time Pie" worksheet. Ask participants to complete it individually.

c. Break into small groups for discussion of the questions at the bottom of the worksheet.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 50 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Time Pie" (Gray, 1977)

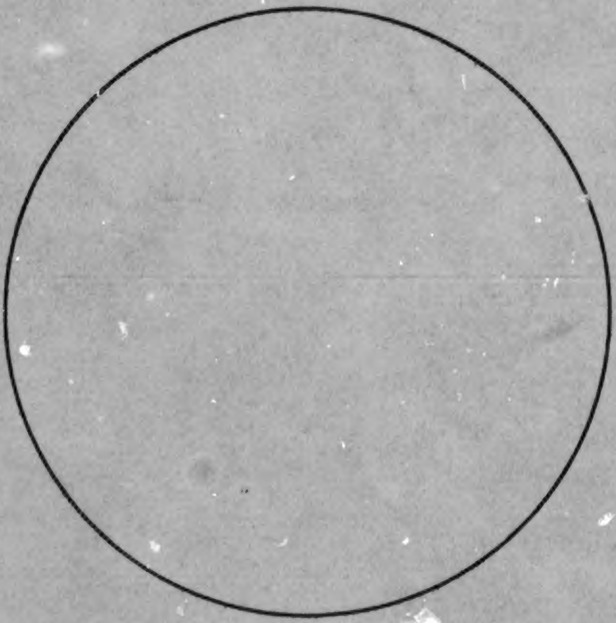
Outcome Criterion:

Participants will divide pie and discuss the implications.

TIME PIE[1]

Directions

Assuming that this circle represents your total waking hours in a typical week, divide the time pie according to how you spend your time: a) working within the home; b) working outside the home; c) alone; d) with friends; e) leisure activities; etc.



Questions to ponder with respect to each category:

How much time do I spend?
What do I typically do with the time?
What personal needs and wants am I trying to fulfill in my use of time?
How well are these needs and wants being met?
What changes, if any, do I want to make in this time pie - reallocating the quality or quantity of my time?
Are there differences in the way men and women in our group spend their time? Different races, economic classes, and ethnic groups?

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[1] Adapted from an exercise by Bonnie Gray, Counselor, University of Minnesota, Extension Division.

"Jesus Was a Feminist"

V. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

B. **Objective**: Describe the ways in which religion contributes to socialization into traditional sex roles.

1. **Learning Strategy**:

Instructions:

a. Explain goals and objectives of strategy.

b. Pass out copies of "Jesus Was a Feminist" for participants to read.

c. Form small groups and ask participants to discuss the article and arrive at a consensus as to whether they agree with the title.

Suggested discussion questions:

1) Do you agree with the title? Are there any examples from Christ's life in which woman is placed in a subservient role?

2) What influences, if any, have your religious teachings about male and female roles had on your career development?

3) Since this is a Christian viewpoint, what are the views of the roles of men and women in other faiths represented in the group?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: A copy of the Bible for each group would be appropriate in some settings
Handout: "Jesus Was a Feminist" (Swidler, 1971)
Attached article: "After the Death of God the Father" (Daly, 1971)
Reference: Conrad-Wahlberg (1975)

Outcome Criteria:

A representative from each group will present small-group conclusions to the large group with arguments for or against Swidler's ideas. Group members will present at least two examples of current contributions of religion to sex-role socialization.

JESUS WAS A FEMINIST[1]

Thesis: Jesus was a feminist.

Definition of terms: By Jesus is meant the historical person who lived in Palestine two thousand years ago, whom Christians traditionally acknowledge as Lord and Savior, and whom they should "imitate" as much as possible. By a feminist is meant a person who is in favor of, and who promotes, the equality of women with men, a person who advocates and practices treating women primarily as human persons (as men are so treated) and willingly contravenes social customs in so acting.

To prove the thesis it must be demonstrated that, so far as we can tell, Jesus neither said nor did anything which would indicate that he advocated treating women as intrinsically inferior to men, but that on the contrary he said and did things which indicated that he thought of women as the equals of men, and that in the process he willingly violated pertinent social mores.

The negative portion of the argument can be documented quite simply by reading through the four Gospels. Nowhere does Jesus treat women as "inferior beings." In fact, Jesus clearly felt especially sent to the typical classes of "inferior beings," such as the poor, the lame, the sinner--and women--to call them all to the freedom and equality of the Kingdom of God. But there are two factors which raise this negative result exponentially in its significance: the status of women in Palestine at the time of Jesus, and the nature of the Gospels.

The Status of Women in Palestine

The status of women in Palestine during the time of Jesus was very decidedly that of inferiors. Despite the fact that there were several heroines, recorded in the Scriptures, according to most rabbinic customs of Jesus' time--and long after--women were not allowed to study the Scriptures (Torah). One first-century rabbi, Eliezer, put the point sharply: "Rather should the words of the Torah be burned than entrusted to a woman.... Whoever teaches his daughter the Torah is like one who teaches her lasciviousness." In the vitally religious area of prayer, women were so little thought of as not to be given obligations of the same seriousness as men.

Rabbinic sayings about women also provide an insight into the attitude toward women: "It is well for those whose children are male, but ill for those whose children are female.... At the birth of a boy all are joyful, but at the birth of a girl all are sad.... When a boy comes into the world, peace comes into the world; when a girl comes, nothing comes.... Even the most virtuous of women is a witch.... Our teachers have said: Four qualities are evident in women: They are greedy at their food, eager to gossip, lazy and jealous." The condition of women in Palestinian Judaism was bleak.

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[1] From: Catholic World, January, 1971, pp. 177-183. Swidler, Leonard, author. Permission to reprint granted by Paulist Press.

The Nature of the Gospels

The fact that the overwhelmingly negative attitude toward women in Palestine did not come through the primitive Christian communal lens by itself underscores the clearly great religious importance Jesus attached to his positive attitude--his feminist attitude--toward women: feminism, that is, personalism extended to women, is a constitutive part of the Gospel, the Good News, of Jesus.

[Swidler notes:]

Jesus taught the Gospel, meaning of Scripture and religious truths in general to women. He also allowed them to follow in His travels and to minister (Luke 8: 1 ff, Mark 15:40 f).

Jesus' first appearance after the resurrection was to women and they were commissioned to bear witness (John 20:11 ff, Matthew 28:9 f, Mark 16:9 ff).

Though women were treated as second-class citizens and sex objects by others, Jesus did not follow that cultural mode (Luke 7:33 ff, John 8:2 ff).

Jesus rejected the blood taboo (Matthew 9:20 ff, Mark 5:22 ff, Luke 8:43 ff); deliberately violated the common code concerning men's relationships to women (John 4:5 ff); rejected the view of wife as chattel in marriage (Mark 10:2 ff, Matthew 19:3 ff); did not restrict women to the role of homemakers (Luke 10:38 ff, Luke 11:27 f).

The notion of the equal dignity of women was also communicated in the parable of the lost coin, for her Jesus projected God in the image of woman (Luke 15:8 ff).

Conclusion

From this evidence it should be clear that Jesus vigorously promoted the dignity and equality of women in the midst of a very male-dominated society: Jesus was a feminist, and a very radical one. Can his followers attempt to be anything less--De Imitatione Christi?

AFTER THE DEATH OF GOD THE FATHER: WOMEN'S LIBERATION AND THE TRANSFORMATION OF CHRISTIAN CONSCIOUSNESS[1]

by Mary Daly[2]

The women's liberation movement has produced a deluge of books and articles. Their major task has been exposition and criticism of our male-centered heritage. In order to reveal and drive home to readers the oppressive character of our cultural institutions, it was necessary to do careful research, to trot out passages from leading philosophers, psychologists, statesmen, poets, historians, saints and theologians which make the reader's hair stand on end by the blatancy of their misogynism. Part of the task also has been the tracing of the subtle psychological mechanisms by which society has held men up and women down. This method of exposition and analysis reached its crescendo within this past year when Kate Millett's *Sexual Politics* rocketed her into the role of American counterpart to Simone de Beauvoir.

As far as the level of creative research is concerned, that phase of the work is finished. The skeletons in our cultural closet have been hauled out for inspection. I do not mean to imply that there are not countless more of the same to be uncovered (just the other day I noticed for the first time that Berdyaev blandly affirms there is "something base and sinister in the female element." Et cetera). Nor do I mean that the task of communicating the message is over. Millions have yet to hear the news, let alone to grasp its import. Certainly it would be a mistake and a betrayal to trivialize the fact that our culture is so diseased. That has always been a major tactic in the fine art of suppressing the rage of women. No, what I am saying is that Phase One of critical research and writing in the movement has opened the way for the logical next step in creative thinking. We now have to ask how the women's revolution can and should change our whole vision of reality. What I intend to do here is to sketch some of the ways in which it can influence Western religious thought.

The Judaic-Christian tradition has served to legitimate sexually imbalanced patriarchal society. Thus, for example, the image of the Father God, spawned in the human imagination and sustained as plausible by patriarchy, has in turn rendered service to this type of society by making its mechanisms for the oppression of women appear right and fitting. If God in "his" heaven is a father ruling "his" people, then it is in the "nature" of things and according to divine plan and the order of the universe that society be male-dominated. Theologian Karl Barth found it appropriate to write that woman is "ontologically" subordinate to man. Within this context a mystification of roles takes place: the husband dominating his wife represents God himself. What is happening, of course, is the familiar mechanism by which the images and values of a given society are projected into a realm of beliefs, which in turn justify the social infrastructure. The belief system becomes hardened and objectified, seeming to have an unchangeable independent existence

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1. From: Commonweal, 1971, pp. 1-5. Reprinted with permission of Mary Daly.

2. Mary Daly, author of The Church and the Second Sex, is associate professor of theology at Boston College.

and validity of its own. It resists social change which would rob it of its plausibility. Nevertheless, despite the vicious circle, change does occur in society, and ideologies die, though they die hard.

As the women's revolution begins to have its effect upon the fabric of society, transforming it from patriarchy into something that never existed before--into a diarchal situation that is radically new--it will, I believe, become the greatest single potential challenge to Christianity to rid itself of its oppressive tendencies or go out of business. Beliefs and values that have held sway for thousands of years will be questioned as never before. It is also very possibly the greatest single hope for survival of religious consciousness in the West.

At this point it is important to consider the objection that the liberation of women will only mean that new characters will assume the same old roles, but that nothing will change essentially in regard to structure, ideology, or values. This objection is often based upon the observation that the very few women in "masculine" occupations seem to behave very much as men do. This is really not to the point for it fails to recognize that the effect of tokenism is not to change stereotypes or social systems but to preserve these. What I am discussing here is an emergence of women such as has never taken place before. It is naive to assume that the coming of women into equal power in society generally and in the church in particular will simply mean uncritical acceptance of values formerly given priority by men. Rather, I suggest that it will be a catalyst for transformation of our culture.

The roles and structures of patriarchy have been developed and sustained in accordance with an artificial polarization of human qualities into the traditional sexual stereotypes. The image of the person in authority and the accepted understanding of "his" role have corresponded to the eternal masculine stereotype, which implies hyper-rationality, "objectivity," aggressivity, the possession of dominating and manipulative attitudes toward persons and environment and the tendency to construct boundaries between the self (and those identified with the self) and "the other." The caricature of a human being which is represented by this stereotype depends for its existence upon the opposite caricature--the eternal feminine (hyper-emotional, passive, self-abasing, etc.). By becoming whole persons women can generate a counterforce to the stereotype of the leader as they challenge the artificial polarization of human characteristics. There is no reason to assume that women who have the support of their sisters to criticize the masculine stereotype will simply adopt it as a model for themselves. More likely they will develop a wider range of qualities and skills in themselves and thereby encourage men to engage in a comparably liberating procedure (a phenomenon we are beginning to witness already in men's liberation groups). This becoming of *whole* human beings will affect the values of our society, for it will involve a change in the fabric of human consciousness.

Accordingly, it is reasonable to anticipate that this change will affect the symbols which reflect the values of our society, including religious symbols. Since some of these have functioned to justify oppression, women and men would do well to welcome this change. Religious symbols die when the cultural situation that supported them ceases to give them plausibility. This should pose no problem to authentic faith, which accepts the relativity of all symbols and recognizes that fixation upon any of them as absolute in itself is idolatrous.

The becoming of new symbols is not a matter that can arbitrarily be decided around a conference table. Rather, they grow out of a changing communal situation and experience. This does not mean that theologically we are consigned to the role of passive spectators. We are called upon to be attentive to what the new experience of the becoming of women is revealing to us, and to foster the evolution of consciousness beyond the oppressiveness and imbalance reflected and justified by symbols and doctrines throughout the millennia of patriarchy.

This imbalance is apparent first of all in the biblical and popular image of the great patriarch in heaven who rewards and punishes according to his mysterious and arbitrary will. The fact that the effects of this image have not always been humanizing is evident to any perceptive reader of history. The often cruel behavior of Christians toward unbelievers and even toward dissenters among themselves is shocking evidence of the function of that image in relation to values and behavior.

Sophisticated thinkers, of course, have never intellectually identified God with an elderly parent in heaven. Nevertheless it is important to recognize that even when very abstract conceptualizations of God are formulated in the mind, images have a way of surviving in the imagination in such a way that a person can function on two different and even apparently contradictory levels at the same time. Thus one can speak of God as spirit and at the same time imagine "him" as belonging to the male sex. Such primitive images can profoundly affect conceptualizations which appear to be very refined and abstract. Even the Yahweh of the future, so cherished by the theology of hope, comes through on an imaginative level as exclusively a He-God, and it is perhaps consistent with this that theologians of hope have attempted to develop a political theology which takes no explicit cognizance of the devastation wrought by sexual politics.

The widespread conception of the "Supreme Being" as an entity distinct from this world but controlling it according to plan and keeping human beings in a state of infantile subjection has been a not too subtle mask of the divine patriarch. The Supreme Being's plausibility, and that of the static worldview which accompanies this projection has, of course, declined. This was a projection grounded in specifically patriarchal infrastructures and sustained as subjectively real by the usual processes of generating plausibility. The sustaining power of the social infrastructures has been eroded by a number of developments in recent history, including the general trend toward democratization of society and the emergence of technology with the accompanying sense of mastery over the world and man's destiny. However, it is the women's movement which appears destined to play the key-role in the overthrow of such oppressive elements in traditional theism, precisely because it strikes at the source of the imbalance reflected in traditional beliefs.

The women's movement will present a growing threat to patriarchal religion less by attacking it than by simply leaving it behind. Few of the leaders in the movement evince an interest in institutional religion, having recognized it as an instrument of their betrayal. Those who see their

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commitment to the movement as consonant with concern for the religious heritage are aware that the Christian tradition is by no means bereft of elements which foster genuine experiences and intimations of transcendence. The problem is that their liberating potential is choked off in the surrounding atmosphere of the images, ideas, values, and structures of patriarchy. What will, I think, become possible through the social change coming from radical feminism is a more acute and widespread perception of qualitative differences between those conceptualizations of God and of the human relationship to God which are oppressive in their implications, and those which encourage self-actualization and social commitment.

The various theologies that hypostatize transcendence invariably use this "God" to legitimate oppression, particularly that of women. These are irredeemably anti-feminine and therefore anti-human. In contrast to this, a more authentic language of transcendence does not hypostatize or objectify God and consequently does not lend itself to such use. So for example, Tillich's way of speaking about God as ground and power of being would be very difficult to use for the legitimation of any sort of oppression. It grows out of awareness of that reality which is both transcendent and immanent, not reducible to or adequately represented by such expressions as person, father, supreme being. Awareness of this reality is not achieved by playing theological games but by existential courage. I am not saying that a liberated consciousness necessarily will use Tillich's language of transcendence. That of Whitehead, James, Jaspers, to mention a few--or an entirely new language--may do as well or better. But it remains true that the driving revelatory force which will make possible an authenticity of religious consciousness is courage in the face of anxiety.

Since the projections of patriarchal religion have been blocking the dynamics of existential courage by offering the false security of alienation--that is, of self-reduction to stereotyped roles--there is reason to see hope for the emergence of genuine religious consciousness in the massive challenge to patriarchy which is now in its initial stages. The becoming of women may be not only the doorway to deliverance from the omnipotent Father in all of his disguises--a deliverance which secular humanism has passionately fought for--but also a doorway to something, that is, the beginning for many of a more authentic search for transcendence, that is, for God.

The imbalance in Christian ideology resulting from sexual hierarchy is manifested not only in the doctrine of God but also in the notion of Jesus as the unique God-man. A great deal of Christian doctrine concerning Jesus has been docetic, that is, it has not really seriously accepted the fact that Jesus was a human being. An effect of the liberation of women will very likely be the loss of plausibility of Christological formulas which come close to reflecting a kind of idolatry in regard to the person of Jesus. As it becomes better understood that God is transcendent and unobjectifiable--or else not at all--it will become less plausible to speak of Jesus as the Second Person of the Trinity who "assumed" a human nature. Indeed, the prevalent emphasis upon the total uniqueness and supereminence of Jesus will, I think, become less meaningful. To say this is not at all to deny his extraordinary character and mission. The point is to attempt a realistic assessment of certain ways of using his image (which in all likelihood he himself would repudiate). It is still not uncommon for priests and ministers, when confronted with the issue of women's liberation, to assert that God became incarnate uniquely as a male, and then to draw arguments for male supremacy from this. Indeed, the tradition itself tends to justify such assertions. The underlying--and often explicit--assumption in the minds of theologians down through the centuries has been that the divinity could not have deigned to become incarnate in the "inferior" sex, and the "fact" that "he" did not do so reinforces the belief in masculine superiority. The transformation of society by the erosion of male dominance will generate serious challenges to such assumptions of the Christological tradition.

It will, I think, become increasingly evident that exclusively masculine symbols for the ideal of "incarnation" will not do. As a uniquely masculine divinity loses credibility, so also the idea of a unique divine incarnation in a human being of the male sex may give way in the religious consciousness to an increased awareness of the divine presence in all human beings, understood as expressing and in a real sense incarnating--although always inadequately--the power of being. The seeds of this awareness are already present, of course, in the traditional doctrine that all human beings are made to the image of God and in a less than adequate way in the doctrine of grace. Now it should become possible to work out with increasing realism the implication in both of these doctrines that human beings are called to self-actualization and to the creation of a community that fosters the becoming of women and men. This means that no completely adequate models can be taken from the past. It may be that we will witness a remythologizing of Western religion. Certainly, if the need for parental symbols for God persists, something like the Father-Mother God proposed by Mary Baker Eddy will be more acceptable to the new woman and the new man than the Father God of the past. A symbolism for incarnation of the divine in human beings may continue to be needed in the future, but it is highly unlikely that women or men will continue to find plausible that symbolism which is epitomized in the image of the Virgin kneeling in adoration before her own son. Perhaps this will be replaced by the emergence of bisexual imagery which is not hierarchical. The experience of the past brought forth a new Adam and a new Eve. Perhaps the future will bring a new Christ and a new Mary. For the present, it would appear that we are being called upon to recognize the poverty of all symbols and the fact of our past idolatry regarding them, and to turn to our own resources for bringing about the radically new in our own lives.

The manifestation of God in Jesus was an eschatological event whose fulfilled reality lies in the future. The Jesus of the Gospels was a free person who challenged ossified beliefs and laws. Since he was remarkably free of prejudice against women and treated them as equals insofar as the limitations of his culture would allow, it is certain that he would be working with them for their liberation today. This awakening of women to their human potentiality by creative action as they assume equal partnership with men in society can bring about a manifestation of God in themselves which will be the Second Coming of God incarnate, fulfilling the latent promise in the original revelation that men and women are made to the image of God.

BEHIND THE MASK

It should be evident, then, that women's liberation is an event that can challenge authoritarian, exclusive and non-existential notions of faith and revelation. Since women have been extra-environmentals, to use a McLuhanish term, that is, since they have not been part of the authority structure which uses "faith" and "revelation" to reinforce the mechanisms of alienation, their emergence can effect a more widespread criticalness of idolatry which is often masked by these ideas. There could result from this a more general understanding of faith as a state of ultimate concern and commitment and a heightened sense of relativity concerning the symbols it uses to express this commitment. An awareness might also emerge--not merely in the minds of a theological elite, but in the general consciousness--that revelation is an ongoing experience.

The becoming of women implies also a transvaluation of values in Christian morality. As the old order is challenged and as men and women become freed to experience a wholeness of personality which the old polarizations impeded, the potentiality will be awakened for a change in moral consciousness which will go far beyond Nietzsche's merely reactionary rejection of Christian values.

Much of the traditional theory of Christian virtue appears to be the product of reactions on the part of men--perhaps guilty reactions--to the behavioral excesses of the stereotypic male. There has been theoretical emphasis upon charity, meekness, obedience, humility, self-abnegation, sacrifice, service. Part of the problem with this moral ideology is that it became generally accepted not by men but by women, who have hardly been helped by an ethic which reinforced their abject situation. This emphasis upon the passive virtues, of course, has not challenged exploitativeness but supported it. Part of the syndrome is the prevailing notion of sin as an offense against those in power, or against "God" (the two are often equated). Within the perspective of such a privatized morality the structures themselves of oppression are not seen as sinful.

Consistent with all of this is the fact that the traditional Christian moral consciousness has been fixated upon the problems of reproductive activity in a manner totally disproportionate to its feeble political concern. This was summed up several years ago in Archbishop Roberts' remark that "if contraceptives had been dropped over Japan instead of bombs which merely killed, maimed and shriveled up thousands alive there would have been a squeal of outraged protest from the Vatican to the remotest Mass center in Asia." Pertinent also is Simone de Beauvoir's remark that the church has reserved its uncompromising humanitarianism for man in the fetal condition. Although theologians today acknowledge that this privatized morality has failed to cope with the structures of oppression, few seriously face the possibility that the roots of this distortion are deeply buried in the fundamental and all-pervasive sexual alienation which the women's movement is seeking to overcome.

It is well known that Christians under the spell of the jealous God who represents the collective power of his chosen people can use religion to justify that "us and them" attitude which is disastrous in its consequences for the powerless. It is less widely understood that the projection of "the other"--easily adaptable to national, racial and class differences--has basically and primordially been directed against women. Even the rhetoric of racism finds its model in sexism.

The consciousness-raising which is beginning among women is evoking a qualitatively new understanding of the subtle mechanisms which produce and destroy "the other," and a consequent empathy with all of the oppressed. This gives grounds for the hope that their emergence can generate a counterforce to the exploitative mentality which is destroying persons and the environment. Since the way men and women are seen in society is a prime determinant in the whole social system and ideology, radical women refuse to see their movement as simply one among others. What I am suggesting is that it might be the only chance for the turning of human beings from a course leading to the deterioration and perhaps the end of life on this planet.

Those who see their concern for women's liberation as consonant with an evolving Christianity would be unrealistic to expect much comprehension from the majority of male ecclesiastics. Such writers as Gordon Rattrey Taylor (*The Biological Time Bomb*), Robert Francoeur (*Utopian Motherhood*), and others keep beeping out the message that we are moving into a world in which human sexuality is no longer merely oriented to reproduction of the species--which means that the masculine and feminine mystiques are doomed to evaporate. Within the theological community, however, the predictable and almost universal response has been what one might call the ostrich syndrome. Whereas the old theology justified sexual oppression, the new theology for the most part simply ignores it and goes on in comfortable compatibility with it, failing to recognize its deep connection with such other major problems as war, racism and environmental pollution. The work of fostering religious consciousness which is explicitly incompatible with sexism will require an extraordinary degree of creative rage, love and hope.

"Messages"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

B. Objective: Describe the ways in which religion contributes to socialization in traditional sex roles.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Pass our writing materials to each participant and ask them to:

List ten right and/or appropriate behaviors for men.
List ten right and/or appropriate behaviors for women.

Ask participants to list the source of this belief after each behavior (e.g., mother or father may have said "girls should" or "boys should," but try to identify where she/he learned it).

c. Next, have participants form small groups to discuss:

1) How many behaviors appear on both lists? (A recorder could record on newsprint.)
2) Do the behaviors differ by racial group?
3) When a behavior appears on the list of only one sex, why does this occur and where do the beliefs come from?
4) Analyze whether different behaviors based on sex and race are expected because of a factual basis or because of dictums from institutions of the society of culture. How much was influenced by religious institutions?
5) Have the concepts of appropriate behavior changed? Why? How much have they changed in religious institutions? Discuss.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Several sheets of newsprint and marking pens
Paper for each individual to prepare lists

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five examples of messages about sex-appropriate behavior derived from religious values.

"Biblical Sex Roles"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

B. Objective: Describe the ways in which religion contributes to socialization into traditional sex roles.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The leader may wish to review a list of men and women in the New Testament and be prepared to provide names and roles if needed.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. In the large group, distribute writing materials to participants. Ask each to list ten or more women who appear in the Bible (or in other religious texts when appropriate). Then list ten or more men. After each name, identify the major function and role of the person listed.

c. The workshop leader then asks if there are persons who could not identify ten women and elicits suggestions about why this is likely to happen.

d. The leader asks for functions or roles on the lists of men and women and records these, noting the differences, and encouraging discussion.

Suggested discussion questions:

1) Some theologians suggest that women most often cited from the New Testament fall into two categories - the virgin/mother role and the harlot. How many women on the lists produced fit these categories? Are there other roles played by women in the New Testament?

2) Who were Priscilla, Lydia, and Esther, for example? What did they do? How much do you hear about them in comparison to Eve, Virgin Mary, Mary Magdalene? What assumptions might you make about the different degrees of emphasis?

3) How are women portrayed in other religious texts?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

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Resources Needed:

Materials: Blackboard/chalk or large sheets of newsprint and marking pens
Attached article: "After the Death of God the Father" (Daly, 1971); (see V.B.1.)
Reference: Daly (1971)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least two ways in which predominant New Testament characters behaved according to traditional sex-role stereotypes.

"New Language for the Gospel"

V. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

C. **Objective**: Compare recent reforms in language and leadership roles within religious institutions with earlier patterns and trace the influence of each on career development and sex-role socialization.

1. **Learning Strategy**:

Note to Leader:

Leader should provide copies of a liturgy, hymn, or creed which is common to the tradition of the participants and which demonstrates particularly sexist language. For example, such hymns as "Rise Up, Oh Men of God," "Sons of God," etc., and confessions such as one of the ILCW (Inter-Lutheran Commission on Worship) forms which begins "We are all men . . ."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader will read common liturgy or creed or hymn, substituting feminine pronouns for masculine.

c. Participants will form small groups. Members will be asked to share their feelings as they listened to the reading.

   1) What effect does the change have on women? On men?
   2) Does the change make men feel excluded?
   3) What might that tell them of the effect that use of masculine language has had on women?
   4) Is is possible to develop forms which use non-sexist language?

d. Pass out copies of liturgies, hymns, or creeds common to the tradition of the participants. Ask participants to edit the readings to make them inclusive for men and women.

e. Each group shares its revision with the total group.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Copies of liturgies, hymns, and creeds
References: Enswiler (1976); Wentz (1976); see also references in V.B.3.

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will edit an example of liturgy, creed, or hymn into non-sexist form.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

V.C.2.

"Career Patterns and Religious Institutions"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIONS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

C. Objective: Compare recent reforms in language and leadership roles within religious institutions with earlier patterns and trace the influence of each on career development and sex-role socialization.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants reflect on their years in religious institutions they attended and list ten persons who were of importance to them.

c. Ask participants to count how many males and how many females appear on their lists. How many Asian-Americans, Blacks, Chicanas/Chicanos, and Native Americans?

d. Ask participants to think about the roles played by males and females, respectively, and to identify:

1) What vocations or avocations did they see as possible for themselves as adult males and females? How did this differ by race or economic class?
2) What careers might they have considered if the roles had been reversed?
3) Are new and different models available to children today?
4) How might that affect their aspirations?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper and pens

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify two areas where new sex-role models are needed in religious institutions.

"Men and Women in Religious Leadership Roles"

V. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL IDENTIFY THE WAYS IN WHICH RELIGIOUS AND/OR PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES MAY INFLUENCE CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF FEMALES AND MALES.

C. Objective: Compare recent reforms in language and leadership roles within religious institutions with earlier patterns and trace the influence of each on career development and sex-role socialization.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Segments from BORN FREE Videotapes No. 1 and No. 5 on Dr. Jeannette Piccard, Episcopal priest, might provide good supplementary stimulus material.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Ask participants to form small groups and prepare a job description for a pastor, priest, rabbi, or other religious institution leader.

c. When this task is completed, ask groups to list personal qualities one would look for in filling the job.

d. Identify which qualities or traits would be labeled more typically masculine or feminine. If caring, nurturing, supportive behaviors are societally labeled "feminine," why have women been excluded from this vocation?

e. Ask participants to list arguments for and against women clergy. When lists are complete, ask participants to analyze the arguments and then to note how many of the same reasons might apply to male clergy.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper and pencils
References: Hewitt & Hiatt (1973); Ermarth (1970)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list at least two ways in which both "male and female qualities" are desirable in clerical leadership roles.

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Goal VI

PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.

   1. Masculine/Feminine: A Reading
   2. How to Tell a Man from a Woman
   3. Woman--Which Includes Man, of Course
   4. Men's Lives (Film)
   5. Stereotypes of the Physically Disabled

B. Examine how the socialization process affects later occupational choices.

   1. Early Influences on Occupational Choice
   2. The Joy of Choosing (Videotape)

C. Identify some of the main ways in which sex-role expectations are conveyed to individuals.

   1. Sex-Role Transmitters
   2. Script Checklist

D. Look at the ways in which the mass media perpetuate stereotypes.

   1. Media Messages
   2. Seeing Is Believing

E. Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.

   1. Watch Your Language
   2. You Are What You Say
   3. Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem
   4. Clichés, Witticisms, and Truisms
   5. Words That Label

Goal VI (cont'd)

F. Develop new norms or patterns for males and females in a more androgynous or liberated society.

1. Characteristics of Women and Men
2. Society's Influence on Sex Roles
3. Physical Continuum
4. The Androgynous Personality

"Masculine/Feminine: A Reading"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

This reading is most effectively done by a female-male team. It is also important to set the mood for the reading through a simple relaxation exercise, playing a record, or similar technique.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have "Masculine/Feminine" read to the large group.

c. Have participants respond to the following questions:

1) How did you feel hearing what was just read?
2) What parts related/did not relate to you?
3) What implications does this reading have for the development of persons? For careers?
4) What does this say about one of the differences between feminine and masculine characteristics?
5) Are the characteristics the same for all racial groups and economic classes?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Masculine/Feminine" (Roszak & Roszak, 1969)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three major points from the reading.

*"MASCULINE/FEMININE"**

He is playing masculine. She is playing feminine.

He is playing masculine because she is playing feminine. She is playing feminine because he is playing masculine.

He is playing the kind of man that she thinks the kind of woman she is playing ought to admire. She is playing the kind of woman that he thinks the kind of man he is playing ought to desire.

If he were not playing masculine, he might well be more feminine than she is--except when she is playing very feminine. If she were not playing feminine, she might well be more masculine than he is--except when he is playing very masculine.

So he plays harder. And she plays . . . softer.

He wants to make sure that she could never be more masculine than he. She wants to make sure that he could never be more feminine than she. He therefore seeks to destroy the femininity in himself. She therefore seeks to destroy the masculinity in herself.

She is supposed to admire him for the masculinity in him that she fears in herself. He is supposed to desire her for the femininity in her that he despises in himself.

He desires her for her femininity which is his femininity, but which he can never lay claim to. She admires him for his masculinity which is her masculinity, but which she can never lay claim to. Since he may only love his own femininity in her, he envies her her femininity. Since she may only love her own masculinity in him, she envies him his masculinity.

The envy poisons their love.

He, coveting her unattainable femininity, decides to punish her. She, coveting his unattainable masculinity, decides to punish him. He denigrates her femininity - which he is supposed to desire and which he really envies - and becomes more aggressively masculine. She feigns disgust at his masculinity - which she is supposed to admire and which she really envies - and becomes more fastidiously feminine. He is becoming less and less what he wants to be. She is becoming less and less what she wants to be. But now he is more manly than ever, and she is more womanly than ever.

Her femininity, growing more dependently supine, becomes contemptible. His masculinity, growing more oppressively domineering, becomes intolerable. At last she loathes what she has helped his masculinity to become. At last he loathes what he has helped her femininity to become.

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*Excerpt from: "Introduction." In Roszak, B., and Roszak, T., eds., Masculine/feminine: Readings in sexual mythology and the liberation of women. (New York: Harper and Row, 1969), pp. vii-viii. Permission granted.

So far, it has all been very symmetrical. But we have left one thing out.

The world belongs to what his masculinity has become.

The reward for what his masculinity has become is power. The reward for what her femininity has become is only the security which his power can bestow upon her. If he were to yield to what her femininity has become, he would be yielding to contemptible incompetence. If she were to acquire what his masculinity has become, she would participate in intolerable coerciveness.

She is stifling under the triviality of her femininity. The world is groaning beneath the terrors of his masculinity. He is playing masculine. She is playing feminine. How do we call off the game?

"How to Tell a Man from a Woman"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is to recognize the characteristics attached to "femininity" and "masculinity" and that these femininity-masculinity characteristics are differentially valued. The results should be related to occupational stereotyping.

Instructions:

a. Explain goals and objectives of strategy.

b. Have participants in small group generate a list of "feminine" characteristics and a list of "masculine" characteristics. (This might most effectively be done by having the lists assigned singly to small groups.)

c. In large group, combine results of small groups into two lists, "feminine" and "masculine."

d. Discuss:

1) Are the lists the same or different?
2) If different, which list is more positive? Negative?
3) Are the lists true for all racial groups and economic classes?
4) What implications do you see for occupation/career development?

e. Then pass out copies of "How to Tell a Businessman from a Businesswoman" to show how the similar behavior is differentially described and valued depending on whether a woman or a man is being described. (If time permits, discuss whether this listing fits with participants' perceptions.)

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "How to Tell a Businessman from a Businesswoman"
(source unknown)

Reference: Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz (1972)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will develop lists of characteristics for women and men, recognize the differential evaluation society assigns to femininity and masculinity, and discuss implications for career development.

*HOW TO TELL A BUSINESSMAN FROM A BUSINESSWOMAN**

A BUSINESSMAN IS AGGRESSIVE; A BUSINESSWOMAN IS PUSHY.

A WELL-DRESSED BUSINESSMAN IS FASHIONABLE; A BUSINESSWOMAN IS A CLOTHESHORSE.

A BUSINESSMAN IS GOOD ON DETAILS; SHE'S PICKY.

HE LOSES HIS TEMPER BECAUSE HE'S SO INVOLVED WITH THIS JOB; SHE'S BITCHY.

PRESSURE IS SO GREAT WHEN HE'S DEPRESSED (OR HUNG OVER) EVERYONE TIPTOES PAST HIS OFFICE; SHE'S MOODY, SO IT MUST BE HER TIME OF THE MONTH.

HE FOLLOWS THROUGH; SHE DOESN"T KNOW WHEN TO QUIT.

HE'S CONFIDENT; SHE'S CONCEITED.

HE STANDS FIRM; SHE'S IMPOSSIBLE TO DEAL WITH.

HE'S A MAN OF THE WORLD; SHE'S BEEN AROUND.

HE ISN'T AFRAID TO SAY WHAT HE THINKS; SHE'S MOUTHY.

HE'S A STERN TASKMASTER; SHE'S HARD TO WORK FOR.

HE'S OVERREACTING; SHE'S EMOTIONAL.

HE WEIGHS THE FACTS AND MAKES A DECISION THAT IS RIGHT; SHE HAS BLIND LUCK.

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*Source Unknown

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

VI.A.3.

"Woman - Which Includes Man, of Course"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

It may be helpful to practice reading the article aloud a couple of times prior to reading the article to the group. See the author's "Suggestions for Reading Aloud."

Instructions:

a. First, set the stage for this experience by preparing listeners to relax and put themselves into the experience. It is often helpful to play some soft, appropriate music at the beginning to impress upon participants that this is a different kind of experience. Listeners might be invited to relax and close their eyes.

   Read the article slowly, deliberately, with frequent pauses and appropriate expression and intonation.

b. The reading could then be discussed in small groups or as a total group. Suggested questions for discussion are:

   1) What did you feel as you listened to this?
   2) What did you learn as you listened to this?
   3) If you are a man, how did you feel?
   4) If you are a woman, how did you feel?
   5) How might the messages in this reading be related to career options?

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Woman - Which Includes Man, of Course: An Experience in Awareness" (Wells, 1970)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will make three statements which reveal that they understand the message of the experience regarding what it is like to be a member of the other sex in American society.

WOMAN - WHICH INCLUDES MAN, OF COURSE: AN EXPERIENCE IN AWARENESS[1]

There is much concern today about the future of man, which means, of course, both men and women - generic Man. For a woman to take exception to this use of the term "man" is often seen as defensive hair-splitting by an "emotional female."

The following experience is an invitation to awareness in which you are asked to feel into, and stay with, your feelings through each step, letting them absorb you. If you start intellectualizing, try to turn it down and let your feelings again surface to your awareness.

Consider reversing the generic term Man. Think of the future of Woman which, of course, includes both women and men. Feel into that, sense its meaning to you - as a woman - as a man.

Think of it always being that way, every day of your life. Feel the everpresence of woman and feel the nonpresence of man. Absorb what it tells you about the importance and value of being woman - of being man.

Recall that everything you have ever read all your life uses only female pronouns - she, her - meaning both girls and boys, both women and men. Recall that most of the voices on radio and most of the faces on TV are women's - when important events are covered - on commercials - and on the late talk shows. Recall that you have no male senator representing you in Washington.

Feel into the fact that women are the leaders, the power-centers, the prime-movers. Man, whose natural role is husband and father, fulfills himself through nurturing children and making the home a refuge for woman. This is only natural to balance the biological role of woman who devotes her entire body to the race during pregnancy.

Then feel further into the obvious biological explanation for woman as the ideal - her genital construction. By design, female genitals are compact and internal, protected by her body. Male genitals are so exposed that he must be protected from outside attack to assure the perpetuation of the race. His vulnerability clearly requires sheltering.

Thus, by nature, males are more passive than females, and have a desire in sexual relations to be symbolically engulfed by the protective body of the woman. Males psychologically yearn for this protection, fully realizing their masculinity at this time - feeling exposed and vulnerable at other times. The male is not fully adult until he has overcome his infantile tendency to penis orgasm and has achieved the mature surrender of the testicle orgasm. He then feels himself a "whole man" when engulfed by the woman.

If the male denies these feelings, he is unconsciously rejecting his masculinity. Therapy is thus indicated to help him adjust to his own nature.

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[1] © Theodora Wells, 1970, 1972. All rights reserved.

Of course, therapy is administered by a woman, who has the education and wisdom to facilitate openness leading to the male's growth and self-actualization.

To help him feel into his defensive emotionality, he is invited to get in touch with the "child" in him. He remembers his sister's jeering at his primitive genitals that "flop around foolishly." She can run, climb and ride horseback unencumbered. Obviously, since she is free to move, she is encouraged to develop her body and mind in preparation for her active responsibilities of adult womanhood. The male vulnerability needs female protection, so he is taught the less active, caring, virtues of homemaking.

Because of his clitoris-envy, he learns to strap up his genitals, and learns to feel ashamed and unclean because of his nocturnal emissions. Instead, he is encouraged to keep his body clean and dream of getting married, waiting for the time of his fulfillment - when "his woman" gives him a girl-child to carry on the family name. He knows that if it is a boy-child he has failed somehow - but they can try again.

In getting to your feelings on being a woman - on being a man - stay with the sensing you are now experiencing. As the words begin to surface, say what you feel from inside you.

ON EXPERIENCING THE AWARENESS: SUGGESTIONS FOR READING ALOUD

This should be read very slowly, with long pauses to give time for the audience to feel their feelings. Let the quiet be . . .

The tone of voice should be low-key and very matter-of-fact, implying that what is being read is the most natural thing in the world, obviously reasonable. The voice tone should reflect that this is a simple report of what everyone knows - conventional wisdom.

By all means, keep a straight face.

It probably should be read by a woman to complete the reversal. However, the authority usually attached to the male voice can have a different impact.

It may be necessary to clarify that role-reversal is not being advocated here, but is used to create awareness of what our present roles are.

"Men's Lives"
(Film)

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.

4. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Prior to session have participants read:
"Men and Women Report Their Views on Masculinity" (Tavris, 1977).

b. Explain goals and objectives of strategy.

c. Discuss the articles in reference to participants' own experience, whether they agree or disagree with the articles, and general reactions. Questions you might want to include are:

1) How common is it for people to have "liberated ideas, unliberated desires," as the author found in the study? Have you found this to be true of yourself?
2) How much does fear of homosexuality restrict men to masculine roles and characteristics? How does this affect career development?
3) Why might men be less likely to ask for directions when lost? (p. 348, Tavris)

d. Show film "Men's Lives." Discuss, and relate back to previous questions and discussion.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 25 minutes for discussing articles
Film: 50 minutes, plus discussion time

Resources Needed:

Materials: Film, "Men's Lives"
Attached article: "Men and Women Report Their Views on Masculinity" (Tavris, 1977)
Reference: "Today's Man" (Hunt, 1976)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will personalize their experiences by discussing the articles and film. Each person will write three ways in which they have been influenced by their sex-role socialization

MEN AND WOMEN REPORT THEIR VIEWS ON MASCULINITY[1]

by C. Tavris

The Hemingway hero is on the way out. Today, the ideal man combines self-confidence, success, and the willingness to fight for his family and beliefs with warmth, gentleness, and the willingness to lose.

- The macho male who is tough, strong, aggressive, and has many sexual conquests is not admired by either sex.
- Men and women are reaching for the androgynous ideal, but they haven't quite caught it. Both sexes support the idea of "men's liberation," the efforts to liberate men from their emotional straitjackets. Men want to be more warm and loving than they feel they are, and women want their men to be more gentle, romantic, and expressive than the men themselves do.
- Generally speaking, women are much more admiring of their men than the men are of themselves.
- Masculinity is harder for men to define than for women. Women know it when they see it, and they consider their men more masculine than the men themselves do.
- Masculinity today is a set of admirable qualities, appropriate for women too, rather than a set of merit badges that must be earned and rewon. Most people don't think men have to prove their manhood any more in daring feats of faucet-fixing or hand-to-hand combat.

These findings, and others, emerged from a survey David Pope and I designed for the readers of *Psychology Today*. Much attention has been devoted to women's rights and roles in the last decade, and we felt it was time to give men a chance to express their side. The survey was addressed to readers of both sexes, so we could see whether men and women agree on what makes a "real man," and what traits, if any, distinguish such a creature from a real woman.

An equal number of men and women filled out the questionnaire, a total of 28,000 in all. People with a wide range of opinions gave us their views on masculinity. *Psychology Today* readers are not typical of the average American because they are younger, more affluent, less religious, better educated, and more liberal (see box), but for just these reasons we thought that if anyone were wondering about the state of American masculinity these days, they would be.

Volunteer surveys are rarely representative of the American public, because only the people who are especially interested in the subject take the time and effort to respond. In the case of a masculinity survey, this

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[1] From: Tavris, C. "Men and Women Report Their Views on Masculinity," Psychology Today, January 1977, pp. 35-38; 42; 82. Reprinted from Psychology Today Magazine. Copyright 1976, Ziff-Davis Publishing Co.

bias may have operated to draw more nontraditional respondents. "So why do I spend an hour and 13 cents to fill out and mail the questionnaire back?" wrote a young minister from Georgia. "Because I feel I *must*, to say very loudly, I'm tired of American male stereotypes! I have a beard, two biceps, a penis AND I'm capable of showing warmth, sharing housework, and shedding a tear. Why are so many men threatened by that combination of characteristics?"

Several women wrote to say they had tried to get their threatened husbands to fill out the survey, but couldn't budge them. "My husband said that answering surveys wasn't masculine," wrote one. Another added, "my husband, who views himself as liberal and is pro-women's lib, didn't think it would be very important for him to see my response sheet or take the survey since, he said, *he* is a man and a man knows more about masculinity. In the words of *Ms*. magazine, CLICK."

This preliminary report compares the answers of men and women to a number of key topics: personality traits; experiences with love, sex, work and family; and the range of ingredients that could be considered part of masculinity or the male role. Naturally we couldn't include all of the nuances that people consider masculine or feminine, and readers reminded us of the omissions. "I look at the way a man uses his hands," said one reader. "Nervous indecisive movements are unmasculine to me." "A man's voice and mannerisms influence me," wrote another. "I hate prissy gestures."

Many couples wrote to tell us how useful it was to fill out the survey together, but some learned more than they expected. "His responses aren't just a surprise to me--they're a shock. He thinks sexual fidelity is not at all important for either sex, while I think it is essential for both! What's worse is that I doubt that we'll be able to talk about these discrepancies. Oh dear." But this wife wrote later to amend her prediction. "We did talk about the discrepancies, and it was not only interesting, but fun."

THE MEANINGS OF MASCULINITY

The criteria for manhood in this society are in a muddied state, which explains the difficulty many respondents had in trying to decide whether men are, or should be, different from women in personality and ability. Many hew to the humanist line that there is no such thing as masculinity or femininity, just humanity. "I feel that being either masculine or feminine is having the guts to be yourself," one man wrote. But others, in transition from one set of standards to another, were uncertain and ambivalent. One fellow couldn't decide whether it was OK or chauvinistic to be turned on by a good-looking woman: "I tend to think of myself as a liberated humanist, but my gut reactions when I'm with a beautiful woman often tend to be distracting. I am not talking about simple sexual attraction, although that is certainly a part of it. I feel that the rest is culturally induced, and I'd like to get rid of it. I have not yet reconciled this conflict within myself."

For others the conflict involved role-related behavior rather than feelings. One man bravely began a letter asserting that "When I open the door for a woman, or help her with her coat, or manage her chair, or open a tightly closed container, I feel that I am definitely masculine. I am the man, dominant and superior." But by the end of the letter he was saying, "Actually I feel it is important that women begin doing these types of things in the presence of men. After all, they'd do it anyway if a man wasn't around."

To begin with, we gave readers a list of traits and asked how important each one was to their concept of the ideal man, and then again for the ideal woman, on a scale from "not at all important" to "essential." The traits included some that were traditionally male, such as competitive and strong, some traditionally female, such as soft and loving to children, and some desirable but sexually neutral, such as self-confident and intelligent. Readers regarded only a few of these traits as essential for men--and essential for women, too. Almost everyone felt that a real man and a real woman stand up for their beliefs, are willing to fight and defend their families, and are able to love. About 40 percent thought that self-confidence was essential for both. Half of the women thought intelligence was essential for both sexes, but for some reason only a third of the men did. There was no single trait that readers overwhelmingly applied to men but not to women, or vice versa. Men were more likely than women to think the ideal man is competitive (38 percent to 27 percent) and take risks (34 percent to 25 percent). But neither sex thought men should be especially aggressive; only some 30 percent thought this trait was essential or very important.

Some traditional images linger, though. Men thought physical attractiveness was more important to their ideal woman than to the ideal man. More men than women, thought not a majority of either sex, felt that "real" men should be more competitive, aggressive, strong, and successful at work than women. But the large proportion of men who believe that masculinity requires warmth, gentleness, and ability to love suggests that they are not your traditional machos, at least in theory.

If men are rejecting the John Wayne model of masculinity, however, they seem less sure than women about what should replace it. More women than men said they know the essential or very important ingredients of masculinity. They admire men who are romantic (66 percent said this trait was essential or very important, compared to 48 percent of the men), warm (89 percent to 68 percent), gentle (86 percent to 64 percent), able to cry (51 percent to 40 percent), and even soft (48 percent to 28 percent). They are also more likely than men to think that a real man is a skilled lover (48 percent to 38 percent) and to believe that sexual fidelity is very important (67 percent to 42 percent). Neither sex regards many sexual conquests as a sign of masculinity. But the women are greedy. They don't just want a man who is merely sweet, thoughtful, loving, gentle, and faithful; they also rate being successful at work more heavily than men do (66 percent to 54 percent). "The more successful a man is at his chosen profession, the more masculine I find that man," one woman said, but amended her remarks to say that the profession could be anything from chess or gardening to medicine and big business. To be fair, more women thought job success was important for their sex, too (60 percent to 41 percent of the men).

PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

	%	
Age	**Men**	**Women**
Under 20	12	21
21-25	29	31
26-30	23	20
31-35	14	11
36-45	12	11
Over 45	10	6
Marital Status		
Never married	52	49
Married, first time	30	27
Remarried	6	7
Divorced, widowed	12	17
Education		
Professional degree	25	16
Some grad school	12	10
College degree	20	19
Some college	32	39
High school or less	11	16
Political views		
Very liberal	25	27
Liberal	31	37
Moderate	26	25
Conservative	14	10
Very conservative	4	1
Religion		
Atheist, agnostic	31	25
Protestant	30	36
Catholic	22	21
Jewish	6	6
Other	11	12
Income (personal)		
None	6	16
Less than $5,000	22	29
$5,000 to $9,999	19	25
$10,000 to $14,999	19	19
$15,000 to $19,000	16	7
$20,000 to $29,000	12	3
More than $30,000	6	1

The androgynous combination of traits that women like turned up in many letters. The ideal men are strong but gentle, tough on the outside and soft on the inside, able to express emotions but not a slave to them. "My husband treats me like a lady...to the world he is assertive, self-confident, but he is very able to show his fears and uncertainties to me in private." "Although my husband feels least masculine when he is home with the family, I feel the opposite. He is strong and powerful in the business world all day, but when he comes home and sometimes stays up all night nursing our sick children--the concern, gentleness, and love he shows are no less masculine."

It may seem that women are putting an impossible load of requirements on men, but I think it is more likely that women define masculinity in terms of whom they love, not an ideal they seek. They do not fall in love because a man is masculine; they decide a man is masculine once they are in love. Possibly for this reason, the women seem more certain of their men's masculinity than the men themselves are. Women were more likely to say their husbands or partners were "more masculine" than average (44 percent to 29 percent), while the men were more likely to feel they were just average in masculinity (58 percent to 48 percent).

Next, we asked men to evaluate themselves on each of the characteristics in the "ideal man" list, and for women to evaluate their husbands or current partners. More women describe their lovers as aggressive, physically strong, competitive, self-confident, and successful at work than the men describe themselves. Women also gave men more credit for being soft, warm, gentle, good-looking, and good lovers. However, there is a considerable gap between everyone's ideal man and the reality, especially in the qualities of warmth, gentleness, and romanticism. For example, 86 percent of the women want a gentle man, but only 55 percent say they have one; 68 percent of the men say their ideal man is gentle, but only 42 percent describe themselves that way.

Men may have rated "being a skilled lover" as less essential to masculinity than women did out of insecurity, but they need not worry. Almost half of the women said that being a good lover was highly characteristic of their men, but only a fourth of the men felt this was true of themselves. One young woman said that her first two lovers had been young, inexperienced, and impetuous. If she had stayed with them, she wrote, "I would truly have a low opinion of sex and men." But then she got an "older" lover, who had reached the ripe age of 30, and her life changed. "He went to great lengths to see that *I* was happy," she reported. "What a difference! Thank God for masculinity. Maybe it comes with age?"

Male insecurity, and female admiration, reappeared in several sexual questions. The men modestly said their penis size was merely average, but the women said their husbands were larger than average (average: 66 percent of the men, 56 percent of the women; larger than average: 19 percent of the men, 38 percent of the women). The men, worrying, tended to think that penis size was more important to a woman's sexual satisfaction than the women said it was for them. (This finding does not come from different experiences, by the way. Both men and women had had about the same average number of sexual partners, so the women's evaluations are not a matter of "they don't know better.") Men can relax. The controversy depends more on the eye of the beholder than the size of the organ.

How important or unimportant is each of the following traits to your concept of the ideal man and the ideal woman?	IDEAL MAN		IDEAL WOMAN		SELF	MATE
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
	Percent saying trait is "very important" or "essential" to ideal:				Percent of men saying trait is "highly characteristic" of themselves:	Percent of women saying trait is highly characteristic of their spouse or lover:
Intelligent	71	84	70	83	—	—
Self-confident	86	86	76	87	32	43
Physically strong	19	21	4	7	15	37
Tall	7	11	4	2	39	40
Physically attractive	26	29	47	32	21	50
Successful at work	54	66	41	60	40	53
Competitive	38	27	18	22	26	33
Aggressive	30	28	16	21	16	23
Takes risks	34	25	21	26	21	25
Stands up for beliefs	87	92	82	90	57	58
Fights to protect family	77	72	72	70	59	52
Able to love	88	96	92	97	54	60
Warm	68	89	83	88	40	54
Gentle	64	86	79	86	42	55
Soft	28	48	63	62	16	25
Romantic	48	66	64	67	33	34
Able to cry	40	51	50	58	—	—
Skilled lover	38	48	41	44	25	46
Many sexual conquests	5	4	4	5	—	—
Sexually faithful	42	67	56	66	45	57

LIBERATED IDEALS, UNLIBERATED DESIRES

One respondent explained that the questionnaire had made her aware of conflicts about masculinity. "I had tended to idealize traits such as gentleness and warmth, indicating that they were vital to masculinity. But when I reflected on one intense relationship, it was the traits I had minimized on paper that had aroused me in fact: pride in physical strength, competition in sports, and his constant awareness of being masculine. I think what I've found is that my feelings still lie in the deepest of traditions. While I will continue to assert myself as powerful in my own right, I'll always revel in my dreams of someone tall, dark, and handsome, to open doors and protect me forever." Another woman solved her ambivalence by marrying a gentle, yielding, affectionate man and taking a dominant, aggressive, muscular man as a lover. "I need both of these men," she wrote, "each fulfilling me in different ways. I would not exchange my husband's gentleness and concern for my lover's aggressiveness or egoism."

Beneath the egalitarian surface, some traditional rumblings can be heard. A minority of respondents of both sexes thought physical strength was more important for men than women, and we got some personal accounts that would have pleased Sam Peckinpah. A young man wrote about saving his girl friend from two wild dogs when the two had gotten lost in a forest. "My girl friend was very frightened that they would attack us, and tried to run but couldn't. I had to push her toward the woods. I stood there as she ran, drew my knife, and knew that I would try to kill those dogs if they attacked. At that moment, I felt totally masculine, instinctive, and unafraid. I was in the paratroopers and have been in combat, but for some reason this experience was extremely exhilarating." Similarly, a young woman wrote how her boy friend's strength and calm saved them when they got lost on a hiking trip:

"I was petrified. It was pitch black, and we had wandered off the trail.... Somehow he got us out of there alive; I'll never know how. During the whole ordeal, he appeared calm and totally in command of the situation. His reassurances kept me calm, even when I fell over a slight drop into a hole. Alone, I would have probably curled up into a ball and spent the night there, too terrified to move." Another woman who admired the "in command" male, described her husband's struggle to save his fishing boat in the face of a thunderous storm. "His masculinity was apparent because of his physical strength and daring, self-confidence and command of the situation," she wrote.

THE MANLY SHOW

Possibly because so few couples get lost in the woods or need to fight dogs and things that go bump in the night, many men have few behavioral criteria by which to judge their masculinity. We asked male readers when they feel most masculine. It turned out to be a tough question. One young man, struggling with definitions, said "masculinity is an illusive quality. Sometimes I mistake showing off for it." Other men feel that masculinity *is* the show: spending money on women, saying something witty or important to impress others, playing the role of teacher, accomplishing a task others said was impossible. Some said they feel masculine only in public, when the concern about behaving "like a man," and not behaving "like a homosexual," takes over. "I usually don't become aware of my masculinity," wrote one man, "except perhaps in the art of drinking lots of liquor. I feel that because I don't drink as much as the other guys, that there might be some doubt if I am a 'real' man."

For such men, masculinity is a matter to be established against other males. But for others, masculinity emerges in relations with women. About one-fourth of the men felt most masculine in sexual contexts, wooing a potential partner or making love. For example, one married man wrote about meeting a woman who was very attractive to him and desirable to other men, and who expressed an interest in having sex with him. Nothing happened, "but this made me feel really masculine, and led to the realization that I could be attractive to women in a truly masculine sense--giving me a confidence I have had ever since." A similar experience happened to a traveling salesman, who wrote:

"I had never been particularly accomplished with women and although my wife was not a demanding person, I thought of myself as a poor bed partner to her and wanted to know if it was because of me or her. I met and had a brief relationship with a divorced [woman].... What was so memorable about this affair was that this woman, who led a very full and varied sex life, was able to give me a tremendous sense of masculinity because she made me feel very special, very masculine, very 'sexy' when I slept with her and those were new feelings to me. The affair was short-lived but in that time she taught me to be confident about myself and I think I can honestly say that since that time I have never doubted my masculinity or felt inferior.... Nor do I feel I have to seduce every woman I meet. I am confident of my own sexuality and therefore, my masculinity."

Another group of men (23 percent) felt most masculine when they were involved in work, defeating an opponent, achieving a major goal, or in competition. For these men, masculinity was earned, a struggle to overcome barriers and to prove something to oneself or others. "I became certain of my masculinity," wrote one, "by becoming an accomplished football player after repeatedly being told by both coaches and friends that I was too small." "Learning to box (prize fight) as a youngster and winning a lot of medals helped me *feel* masculine," an older man said, "but making hard decisions in life...made me *convinced* of my masculinity."

BEING AND DOING

Many writers, including Margaret Mead and Norman Mailer, have observed that women acquire a feminine identity simply by *being*, but men must earn masculinity by *doing*. Masculinity, in this view, is precarious because it has depended on a man behaving in certain "male" ways and not behaving in "female" ways.

Most of the respondents disagreed with this standard. Only a few men, for example, felt most masculine in the context of fighting or war, the traditional means of earning male merit badges. A young married man said that "the times I have felt really masculine have been in Vietnam during a fierce firefight, where we were vastly outnumbered and won; the other was my first parachute jump." Another said his most masculine experience occurred when he rescued a woman from being mugged.

Fewer than 10 percent said they felt a man would lose his masculinity if he were in a traditionally female occupation, such as nurse, model, nursery-school teacher, dress designer, or interior decorator. Respondents were even reluctant to say that men lose their masculinity if they don't work at all, that is, if they live on welfare, drop out of the system, or stay home as househusbands. The only occupations that would make a substantial number of men (under 20 percent) doubt a man's masculinity were prostitution and go-go dancing, and the only occupation a large group thought should be restricted to men was armed combat (30 percent of the men and 37 percent of the women).

However, men who worked in nontraditional jobs had another perception of the matter. A male nurse said that many people assume he is homosexual or at best unmasculine. A male elementary-school teacher said it took several years before he was accepted by the female teachers as "a real man." And a minister observed that "my profession has never been traditionally seen as a manly occupation. Therefore I have altered my concept of masculinity rather than question the masculinity of the ministry."

OF ARMS AND THE MAN

If work doesn't define masculinity, maybe aggressiveness does. I noted already that most respondents did not consider aggressiveness to be a desirable or essential masculine trait, but they were ambivalent about its use. We asked readers what a man should do if a stranger 1) accosted or insulted his wife, and 2) provoked him to anger. Men and women disagreed in their replies. In the first situation, more women than men thought the woman should handle the matter (26 percent to nine percent), but almost twice as many men as women were ready to hit the guy (19 percent to 10 percent). In the second situation, the men wanted to argue with the insulting stranger, but the women wanted them to ignore the pest.

One woman specified a whole set of circumstances that would determine what her man should do. "If a man verbally attacked me, say in a restaurant, I would want my husband to ignore him. But if he said something that was totally inexcusable, and quite loud, I would hope my husband would punch him. If he physically attacked me, I would be so embarrassed if my husband didn't punch him! But I definitely do not think fighting is an expression of manliness. I hate fist fights, but in the above situation I feel that it would be right."

Respondents do not like the idea of personal violence much, but they aren't strangers to the experience. Sixty percent of the men have at least occasionally hit another man in anger, and 40 percent have hit a woman on occasion, though few men say they punch either sex regularly. Women were more likely to have hit men than the other way around--65 percent of them have struck a man in anger--and, moreover, they are more likely than men to feel just fine about hitting a member of the opposite sex (32 percent to 17 percent; half said the experience was "understandable under the circumstances, but I would not do it now," and the rest are sorry they did it).

Men: When a man provokes you and makes you very angry, what are you most likely to do?

Women: When another man provokes your spouse or lover, what would you like him to do?

	% Men	Women
Hit him.	8	4
Threaten to hit him.	8	4
Argue with him.	45	28
Make a joke of it.	5	10
Ignore him.	24	40
Leave the scene.	10	14

Men: If a strange man deliberately accosted or insulted your wife or lover, what would you be most likely to do?

Women: If a strange man deliberately accosted or insulted you, what should your spouse or lover do?

	% Men	Women
Hit him.	19	10
Threaten to hit him.	18	14
Argue with him.	31	28
Make a joke of it.	5	5
Ignore him.	13	12
Let the woman handle the matter.	9	26
Leave the scene.	5	5

HOMOSEXUALITY AND MASCULINITY

While most of the respondents did not believe that masculinity requires many sexual conquests, they were divided on whether it requires heterosexuality. Seventy percent of the heterosexual respondents think that homosexual men are not fully masculine, although on most issues in the survey heterosexuals and homosexuals did not differ.

Heterosexuality and homosexuality are not either-or categories; as Kinsey found out, "the world is not to be divided into sheep and goats." In describing their sexual preference, 68 percent of the men said they were exclusively heterosexual; 18 percent said heterosexual, but had had homosexual experiences; six percent said they were bisexual; five percent said they were homosexual but had had heterosexual experiences; and three percent were exclusively homosexual. We compared the attitudes and experiences of these five groups, to see whether and how their concepts of masculinity differed.

Generally the groups agreed on the traits of the ideal man, with several exceptions. The more homosexual experience a man had, the more likely he was to think physical attractiveness, warmth, and intelligence are essential to a "real man." Homosexual men were also far more likely to say the ability to love was essential to masculinity (78 to 59 percent of the heterosexuals) and they placed greater importance on sexual fidelity (55 to 44 percent).

But homosexual men were more likely than heterosexual men to say they had never been in love (22 percent to three percent) and to have had many more sexual partners (33 percent of the homosexuals had had more than 100 lovers, compared to two percent of the heterosexuals). As one homosexual wrote, "I've found homosexuals to be relatively notorious sexually, with the heteros coming up fast. We all want the same thing: sex *with* love. But too often can't wait. I believe in love, absolutely. But in the meantime, rather than go crazy with loneliness, I will succumb for sex."

We found no differences among these groups in demographic factors--age, education, occupation, income, birth order, or religion--or in the importance they place on such life dimensions as work, money, love, and sex. In some matters, the interesting differences were not between exclusive heterosexuals and exclusive homosexuals, but between men who had had *no* homosexual experience and those who had, e.g., the exclusive heterosexuals were less likely than men in any category of homosexual background to value the ability to cry, and more likely to value competitiveness, as masculine traits.

Homosexual men regard themselves as less masculine than average (40 percent, compared to seven percent of the heterosexuals), and more feminine than average (36 percent to 19 percent). In terms of the stereotyped image of masculinity, their evaluation is true: homosexual men were much less likely to use violence, in their own experience or in the hypothetical stories; much less likely to own guns (40 percent of the exclusively heterosexual men own a gun, compared to only seven percent of the exclusively homosexual); much less likely to follow sports or participate in them. By self-report, the homosexuals' antimacho inclinations began in childhood. The greater a man's commitment to homosexuality, the more likely he was to report being ridiculed as a child for being a sissy: 27 percent of the exclusively heterosexual reported such ridicule, 44 percent of the heterosexuals with some homosexual encounters, 62 percent of the bisexuals, 56 percent of the homosexuals with heterosexual experiences, and 71 percent of the exclusively homosexual. We found, significantly, that the men most worried about being thought homosexual were not the exclusive heterosexuals, but the heterosexual men who had had an occasional homosexual encounter.

Homosexuals are as diverse in their attitudes about masculinity as heterosexuals are, though by virtue of their minority status they tend to be more politically liberal and more in favor of men's--and women's--liberation. We got letters from some who felt unmasculine and wanted to be heterosexual; others who were strong and certain about their masculine identity. "I believe that the average person hasn't the least idea of what or who is a homosexual," wrote one man, "except for the stereotypical effete male, which really isn't true. I've known many very 'masculine' men who were exclusive homosexuals--and the only passes I've ever had made at me have always been by married men. Interestingly enough it is this type of person who always makes it a point to either make a crude joke about 'queers' or is extremely disdainful of homos."

THE NEW MASCULINITY

Respondents supported the women's liberation movement, but they also overwhelmingly think that men could use some liberating too (72 percent of the men, 74 percent of the women). Not because of the confining pressures of the male role, surprisingly; the majority of the respondents disagreed that "the responsibilities of work and supporting a family give men less freedom of choice than women have" (52 percent of the men, 62 percent of the women). On the contrary, about half of the respondents think that neither sex is better off than the other in this society, and most of the rest think men have the advantage.

Men's liberation, to these readers, has more to do with emotional issues than economic ones. "I think men quit growing emotionally at five," one woman wrote. "They need to be taught to *feel*. Bringing home a good income isn't enough." A man explained, "Stereotypic ideas about masculinity in the 1950s were to a great degree my undoing. My inability to develop along routine lines had a lasting, negative effect on my self-esteem." Another man thought that women presently are more liberated than men; women merely have to endure discrimination in jobs and family, but men are more discriminated against in emotional needs. "I suspect that women have always been more internally free of their role than men," said another man. "Men's slavish inhibitions keep them within the confines of a given role, resulting in defensive egotism, practically forcing women to humor their rigidness."

The fact that more men and women believe in sexual equality is not a random or accidental event. It has its roots in the changing nature of family and work in this country; both sexes are deciding that two roles are better than one. Men are becoming less obsessed with work and success as the main criteria of masculinity, and women are relying less on marriage and children as the main criteria of femininity. In this sample, for instance, both sexes were equally likely to agree on the important aspects of their lives, in this descending order: love, job, sex, recognition, marriage, money, religion, and power. This is new. In the olden days, men would rank work, money, recognition and power as much more important than the softer side of life, quite the opposite of women.

But equality does not mean sameness. Men and women still want some differences to remain, and the lag between changing external conditions and changing beliefs means that people will be caught in uncertainty for a while. For example, many female respondents still want to look up to their men. We asked men how acceptable it would be to them if their wives or lovers were more intelligent than they, earned more money, or were more famous. We asked the women how they would feel about earning more money or being more intelligent and famous than their men. The men were more likely than the women to say such situations would be "totally acceptable" to them. Forty-five percent of the men but only 27 percent of the women would find the woman's greater intelligence "totally acceptable," and 18 percent of the men and 36 percent of the women would find it unacceptable. Curiously, both sexes said the woman's greater fame and fortune would be easier to accept than her greater intelligence, possibly because the former situation is less probable than the latter. Almost 90 percent of the men said it was acceptable for their wives to earn more money, but very few wives actually do earn more. We can't tell from these answers, unfortunately, whether men really would be more at ease than women in these situations, or whether the women know the men better than the men admit.

Percent saying trait is highly characteristic of themselves (men) or their husbands/current partner (women):

	Men	Women
Physically attractive	21	50
Aggressive	16	23
Physically strong	15	37
Competitive	26	33
Gentle	42	55
Soft	16	25
Warm	40	54
Romantic	33	34

Some evidence for the second interpretation comes from other questions. Women want to look up to their men, yes, but not while they are scrubbing the floor. The men are more likely to say they share housekeeping and routine childcare 50-50, but the women disagree with that perception, saying they do most of it, and that while their husbands approve of their working, they would not make personal adjustments to help them out. Men are also more satisfied with the division of labor than women (49 percent to 34 percent). These egalitarian males want to believe they are doing their share of domestic duties, but the realities may be closer to the traditional ways.

The sexes have different perceptions on another matter, a little item we put in at the last moment. When you are driving with your spouse or lover and lose your way, what are you most likely to do? (Women responded in terms of what their men were likely to do.) Half of the men said they would ask for directions themselves, but only one-fourth of the women said their men would do such a reasonable thing. Men either keep hunting by trial and error, the women said, or the women in desperation finally ask for directions. Which sex is more accurate? Why masculinity precludes asking for directions baffles me, unless it's a genetic throwback to the age when men couldn't stop to ask while hunting saber-toothed tigers.

Today there are as many styles of masculinity as a man could want, and it even appears that the machos and the feminists are becoming more tolerant of each other. The next report will contrast some of these styles, and also explore some of the background factors and current experiences that are related to different meanings of masculinity. For the moment, here is one reader who illustrates how much standards of masculinity have changed in this century:

"In 1910, when I was born, I was living in an era when men were really men, compared to whom modern examples of masculinity seem like a bunch of pansies. In those times to my young eyes, women were mostly a pain in the neck, and the males' main interest in them was to catch a glimpse of their ankles as they walked up or down stairs, but I never understood why. Women could never keep a confidence but were incurable tattletales, which was of utmost disgust to any men, who were strictly honorable in all their dealings. How the world has changed!"

"Stereotypes of the Physically Disabled"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Identify outcomes of the sex-role socialization process.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The attached article should be assigned to be read prior to the session (or allow ten to fifteen minutes for reading during the workshop). It may be helpful to also include the two pages from the "Fact Pack" section which focus on the physically disabled.

Instructions:

a. Have participants form small groups and discuss their reactions to the article. Suggested questions are:

   1) What was your overall response to the article?
   2) Was the information new or surprising to you?
   3) How would you feel if you were physically disabled? Do you think about it at all?
   4) How might being physically handicapped affect one's opportunity for equal employment (include both internal and external factors)?
   5) How might being physically handicapped affect one's career development?
   6) How does your institution facilitate career development of the physically disabled? For example, what images are portrayed in textbooks and other materials? Are buildings barrier-free? Are there any programs aimed at reducing stereotypes, discriminatory practices, and barriers?

b. Report back to large group.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes plus time to read the article

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "Media Portrayals of Disabled People: A Study in Stereotypes" (Biklen and Bogdan, 1978)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will list three stereotypes of the disabled, three examples of non-stereotypic language uses, and two examples from their institution of ways in which the institution facilitates or inhibits career development of the physically disabled.

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MEDIA PORTRAYALS OF DISABLED PEOPLE:
A STUDY IN STEREOTYPES[1]

by Douglas Biklen and Robert Bogdan

"Handicapism" refers to the stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination practiced by society against disabled people.[2] The term provides a perspective by which we may analyze experiences, policies and practices related to disabilities.

Handicapist barriers have prevented the integration of disabled people into the mainstream of our society. This has made it easy to ignore the extent to which disability affects our population. Far from being a condition that affects only a few people, disability affects significant numbers of our population. The American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities estimates that disabilities affect 36 million people--one out of every six people in the U.S.

As this sizeable and increasingly activist group of disabled people voices its concerns, we become more aware of the extent to which handicapism pervades our society. Handicapism is prevalent in education, employment, literature, the mass media, architectural and transportation design and in a multitude of other areas. Handicapism affects us *all*--both disabled and non-disabled people--just as we are *all* affected by racism, sexism, ageism and other negative, harmful attitudes.

One of the manifestations of handicapism--again as with racism, sexism, etc.--has been a profusion of negative stereotypes that serve to reinforce society's oppression of a minority group. As with stereotypes about Third World people and women, some stereotypes about people with disabilities draw upon--but distort--reality. While disabled people *do* experience some real limitations--decreased ability to hear, see or walk, for example--*most* of the limitations associated with being disabled derive from society's response to disability. (As one activist has said, "Our bodies make us disabled, but society makes us handicapped.") Society's negative stereotypes also draw upon myth, reflecting "truths" that upon close examination turn out to be false. Businesses, for example, frequently state that hiring a disabled worker will be costly in terms of insurance, special privileges, time missed for illness, etc., whereas studies show that none of these "facts" is true.

An interesting aspect of stereotypes about disabled people is that they often embrace two diametrically opposed concepts. In the same way that women have sometimes been viewed as either "saints" or "whores," perceptions of disabled people often reflect "two-sides-of-a-coin" extremes. (People with

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1. From: Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 8 (6 & 7), 4-9. Reprinted with permission of the Council on Interracial Books for Children, 1841 Broadway, N.Y., N.Y. 10023. Free catalog available on materials to counter racism and sexism in the classroom.

2. The word "handicap" comes from the practice of beggars who held "cap in hand" to solicit charity--and the word reflects the dependent position in which society places disabled people.

DISABLED--YES; HANDICAPPED--NO:
THE LANGUAGE OF DISABILITY

Society's misconceptions about people with disabilities are reinforced by negative, handicapist terms--terms like "cripple," "spastic," "idiot." Continued use of these words contributes to the negative self-images of disabled people and perpetuates handicapist attitudes and practices.

One goal of the disability rights movement is the elimination of handicapist language--in speech, in media, in classrooms, in library card catalogs. The CIBC urges parents, librarians and teachers to be alert to handicapist terms and, when these words do come up, to ask that people think about their offensive implications.

Try to avoid all terms that dehumanize or objectify disabled persons, all terms that characterize disabled persons as dependent or pitiable, all terms that perpetuate the myth that disabled persons are incapable of participating in the life of a community.

There is considerable controversy about some terms. The word "handicap" is rejected by many disability rights activists because of its historic associations with "begging" and society's negative stereotypes. However, it is still the preferred term of the federal government and is the terminology used in the new legislation to protect disabled people against discrimination. The term "exceptional" has been favored for a number of years by some advocacy groups--for example, the Council for Exceptional Children in Reston, Virginia, and *Exceptional Parent*, a journal published in Massachusetts for parents of disabled children. Many disability activists consider this a euphemism. Massachusetts recently passed a law--Chapter 766--that prohibits labeling of any kind. Children with disabilities in Massachusetts are henceforth to be identified only as "children with special needs." The Massachusetts law is considered to be progressive, but there is some criticism that it gives legitimacy to a phrase that emphasizes a person's "neediness."

In deciding on terminology, *Bulletin* editors gave serious consideration to "physicalism," another term advanced by disability activists. Physicalism may be defined as discrimination based on physical appearance and was, therefore, considered too broad a referent for the kinds of disabilities discussed in this *Bulletin*. Future *Bulletin* articles will explore the broader topic.

We have selected the word "disability" as a positive reference to physical or developmental conditions, but we have used "handicapism" because of its negative connotations to describe society's oppression of disabled people.

(cont.)

Below are examples of terminology which, in the light of the new awareness, are considered to be offensive. Preferred substitutes are listed to the right. Some of these terms may appear awkward when first used, but groups using them find that they become readily acceptable after a short while.

OFFENSIVE	PREFERRED
handicap, handicapped person	disability, disabled person
deaf and dumb, deaf-mute, the deaf	deaf, hearing disability, hearing impairment
mongoloid	Down's syndrome
cripple, crippled	orthopedic disability, mobility impaired, disabled person
the blind	blind person, sight disability, visually impaired
retard, retardate, idiot, imbecile, feeble-minded	retarded, mental impairment, mentally disabled
crazy, maniac, insane, mentally ill	emotional disability, emotional impairment, developmentally disabled

RELATED TERMS TO AVOID: The Minnesota 1976 Governors Conference on Handicapped Individuals proposed that the following entries be deleted from library catalogs: Abnormal children; Abnormalities, Human; Atypical children; Children, Backward; Children, Retarded; Children, Feeble-Minded.

disabilities are, for example, seen as asexual and, on the other hand, as insatiable "sex degenerates"; as helpless victims of violence and, at the same time, as evil and frightening villains.) In addition, as will be pointed out, handicapist stereotypes are often interrelated and reinforce each other.

We believe with the Council on Interracial Books for Children that an effective way to begin counteracting handicapist stereotypes is to alert readers, especially young readers, to their presence. As a step toward this goal we have informally surveyed a range of classic literature as well as popular contemporary media. We have concluded that although a few books and films treat disabilities sensitively and accurately, most do not.

We observed, too, that even the most sensitive materials overplay individual solutions to disability problems without referring at all to societal factors that can cause disability, or to societal discrimination against disabled people.

Drawing on the images of disabled people revealed by our survey, we have compiled the following annotated list of handicapist stereotypes. This list is a first step, intended mainly to alert readers and stimulate thought. We ask you to join us in further illuminating handicapist stereotypes and in developing strategies to counteract handicapism.

HANDICAPIST STEREOTYPES

1. The disabled person as pitiable and pathetic. This image is often projected in newspapers and in charity drive solicitations for "the needy" or "handicapped." Remember the old "March of Dimes" posters? Though the posters have been changed in response to protests, the concept is still alive and well in the yearly telethons held to raise money for people with cerebral palsy and muscular dystrophy. (At a 1977 demonstration protesting the annual United Cerebral Palsy Telethon, Disabled in Action, a disability rights organization, stated: "Fund-raising telethons are demeaning and exploitative 'shows' which celebrate and encourage pity.")

In literature the pitiable and pathetic stereotype is reflected in the characterizations of Philip Carey in *Of Human Bondage* and Laura Wingfield in *The Glass Menagerie*. This stereotype is often used by authors as a device for revealing another character's goodness and sensitivity. In such instances, the disabled persons seem to have been included primarily so that a main character can be seen showing love, kindness and pity toward them. "Pitiable and pathetic" characters are often portrayed as having hearts of gold, which serves to elicit even greater feelings of pity (rather than genuine compassion) from audiences or readers. Tiny Tim in *A Christmas Carol* is an example, as is Porgy in the Gershwin opera *Porgy and Bess*. This patronizing stereotype springs in part from the feelings of superiority that non-disabled people harbor towards people with disabilities.

2. The disabled person as object of violence. In reality, disabled people are often victims of violence. However, the absence in literature and other media of a full range of roles for disabled people renders this type of portrayal a stereotype that strongly reinforces society's view that people with disabilities are totally helpless and dependent. The films *Woman in a Cage* and *What Ever Happened to Baby Jane?* are examples. In the former, Olivia DeHavilland, in a wheelchair, is trapped in an elevator by a band of youthful thieves while they ransack her apartment. In the latter, Joan Crawford (also in a wheelchair) is wholly at the mercy of her diabolical and murderous sister, Bette Davis. Another example is *Wait Until Dark*, in which a blind Audrey Hepburn ultimately outwits a bunch of thugs but only after they have thoroughly terrorized her in their search for a drug cache in her house. TV crime shows often sensationalize violent assaults against people with disabilities.

3. The disabled person as sinister and/or evil. The classic example of this common stereotype is Shakespeare's *Richard III*. Exploiting people's negative perceptions of physical disability, Shakespeare distorted the appearance of the king (who in real life was not disabled) to accentuate the evil dimension of his personality:

> I, that am curtail'd of this fair proportion,
> Cheated of feature by dissembling nature,
> Deform'd, unfinisht, sent before my time
> Into this breathing world, scarce half made up,
> And that so lamely and unfashionable
> That dogs bark at me as I halt by them
> Why, I, in this weak piping time of peace,
> Have no delight to pass away the time
> Unless to spy my shadow in the sun,
> And descant on mine own deformity:
> And therefore, since I cannot prove a lover,
> To entertain these fair well-spoken days,
> I am determined to prove a villain,
> And hate the idle pleasures of these days. (Act I, Sc.1)

Captain Ahab in Herman Melville's *Moby Dick* becomes so undone by the white whale's destruction of one of his legs that he sacrifices himself and most of his crew in obsessive pursuit of revenge. Melville uses Ahab's disability to build a sinister and foreboding atmosphere as, for example, when narrator Ishmael hears Ahab's false leg tapping back and forth across the deck in the middle of the night.

In fairy tales, there is the malicious *Rumpelstiltskin* and the mean witch (who "leans upon a crutch") in *Hansel and Gretel*. Classic children's literature has exploited this stereotype to the hilt. Take Stevenson's *Treasure Island*. In evoking the terror and suspense that mark this book's opening pages, the key elements are the disabled characters Black Dog and Pew. The former is introduced as a "tallow-faced man, wanting two fingers." This minor disability sets a tone that is built up when the second man is described as that "hunched and eyeless creature," and it is the latter who hands Billy Bones the dread black spot. In addition, when Long John Silver is introduced as a good guy, there is only a casual mention of the fact that he has a wooden leg. Later, when his treachery is revealed, the references to his "timber" leg become ominous and foreboding.

Examples in modern media are the maniacal and fascistic Dr. Strangelove in the movie of the same name, who has multiple disabilities; the villains in the movies *Dirty Harry*, *The Sting* and *Burn, Witch, Burn*--all of whom limp; and the profusion of disabled villains in the James Bond films.

4. The disabled person as "atmosphere." Blind musicians, newsdealers and the "blind man with a cup" are frequently thrown in for seasoning in movies and TV stories, a practice which dilutes the humanity of disabled people by reducing them to the status of colorful or curious objects. They become like Sherlock Holmes' hat and pipe or Detective Columbo's rumpled raincoat. Related to this stereotype is the depiction of disabled people as exotica. People who are displayed in so-called "freak shows" are victims of this stereotype (General Tom Thumb, a dwarf in P.T. Barnum's sideshows, is a famous example). These shows are, in a sense, disability pornography in that they encourage prurient fascination with disabilities.

5. The disabled person as "Super Crip." This stereotype is somewhat akin to the depiction of Third World characters as having "super" qualities to make them deserving of acceptance and respect by white people, except that with disability, the person is often assigned what amounts to a magical ability. "Longstreet" and "Ironsides," TV's super private eyes, are striking examples. Longstreet, who is blind, has developed superhuman hearing to offset his inability to see. Ironsides, though paralyzed, has extraordinary mental powers as well as unusual calm in the presence of adversity. His name, colloquial for wheelchair, echoes the naming of characters according to their disabilities found in many children's books. A positive feature of "Ironsides" is that the show has helped educate viewers about architectural access issues and has underscored the importance of certain aids to some physically disabled people. Unfortunately, the various ramps and other special aids available in Ironsides' fictional environment are not provided for disabled people in real life. Real-life expressions of this stereotype appear frequently on the pages of the *National Enquirer, Midnight, Readers' Digest* and other publications which regularly feature the extraordinary achievements of disabled persons who "overcome"--thus becoming a credit to their "race."

6. The disabled person as laughable. The nearsighted Mr. Magoo is the quintessential fool, epitomizing society's perceptions of certain conditions of being--in this case, physical disability--as humorous. Blissfully unaware of his nearsightedness, Magoo bumbles through life wreaking much havoc and unmindful of numerous dangers to himself. Although he survives everything, we--the aware audience--know that his survival is due only to chance and not to ingenuity on his part. The old Dean Martin/Jerry Lewis films (still being rerun on TV) often featured Lewis mimicking various disabilities and thereby soliciting many a laugh. And a recent skit on the Richard Pryor show portrayed with extraordinary insensitivity the condition of people with disabilities. Pryor apparently intended to satirize religious "quacks" who exploit people, but in the process disabled people got put down too. People who have suffered hearing loss are frequently made the butt of jokes in comedy routines when they misinterpret what is said to them.

Some stories portray a disabled person as the brunt of other people's chicanery. In the Russian folk-tale *The Little Humpbacked Horse*, Ivan the Dullard is helped out of numerous jams by the "Super Crip" horse--who has magic powers. Yet an aspect of this story, as with many similar tales, is that the one presumed to be foolish inadvertently makes fools of the so-called "normal" characters. This recurring theme is undoubtedly a kind of stereotype but one that results in poetic justice.

7. The disabled person as his/her own worst--and only--enemy. The popular media often portray disabled people as self-pitiers who could "make it" in society if only they would stop being "bitter" about their "fate," think positively and rise to The Challenge. The legitimate anger which disabled people may feel about society's abuse is misrepresented as unfounded bitterness that has its roots in the person's character. Hence, this stereotype helps "normal" people to avoid confronting the anger's true causes--which implicate the attitudes and practices of "normals" and of "normal" society. Just as victims of racist or sexist oppression are blamed for adversities they encounter, so does this stereotype place blame on disabled people for their difficulties. TV medical shows like "Marcus Welby, M.D." are some of the worst offenders here. These shows generally ignore the institutional

barriers society places in the way of disabled people, as well as the pervasive and devastating discrimination they experience....Children's authors seem to be especially fond of this stereotype, perhaps because they regard it as effective for promoting self-help and determination in young readers. But given the realities, a degree of self-pity on the part of disabled people may be quite functional and appropriate.

8. The disabled person as burden. This stereotype is linked to the concept that all people with disabilities are helpless and need to be taken care of by "normal" people. While it is true that disabled people have a range of special needs--from mild to severe--the perception that they are burdens is engendered by the difficulties our society imposes on meeting their needs. Generally speaking, a burden is something one wishes to be rid of; hence, the constant recurrence of the "burden" image in media objectifies and dehumanizes. At the same time, it can falsely enhance the image of the person who bears the "burden" at the expense of the disabled person. It's important to recognize that people with disabilities are, first and foremost, human beings who are capable of much independence and of interacting with others in mutually rewarding ways. Lenny, the mentally retarded character in *Of Mice and Men,* is an interesting case in point. While most people view Lenny as being utterly helpless and dependent on hero George, actually Lenny's physical strength provides the economic basis of George's livelihood. In addition to feeling affection and caring for Lenny, George is dependent on *him.*

9. The disabled person as non-sexual. Disabled people are almost always portrayed as totally incapable of sexual activity. Remember the song "Ruby, Don't Take Your Love to Town" that was popular during the Vietnam war years? A veteran begs his lover not to let a war injury that has incapacitated him sexually come between them. A more common manifestation of this stereotype, however, is omission of the sexual dimension from characterizations of people who are disabled. In fact, they are rarely shown in a loving relationship of any kind. The previously cited Detective Ironsides is portrayed as having *had* a love life once upon a time before he was shot in the spine, and, thus, put out of commission. His "old flames" turn up occasionally to join him in soulful reminiscences about their lost love, but nothing's happening in the here and now. (Again, although some disabilities may limit an individual's sexual activity, the assumption that disabled people are non-sexual beings is false and unreal.) Interestingly, shows are beginning to appear on TV that in some ways counter this particular stereotype. *Other Side of the Mountain*, the story of Jill Kinmont, is a particularly honest film.

The flip side of this stereotype is the portrayal of disabled persons as sex-starved or sexually degenerate (comic books are particular offenders here). Another curious reversal is that *men* with certain mild disabilities--especially ones sustained in war--are often viewed as exceptionally brave and/or sexy. This image has been effectively exploited in the "classic" ads for Hathaway shirts featuring a man with an eye patch (this campaign, first used in the 1950's, has recently been revived). Lord Nelson and Moshe Dayan are real-life examples. In a macho society, women similarly disabled are not seen in such a glamorous light.

10. The disabled person as incapable of fully participating in everyday life. This stereotype is mainly one of omission in that disabled people are rarely shown as integral and productive members of society--as part of the work force, as functioning members of families, as students or teachers, etc. The absence of such portrayals feeds the concept that disabled people are inferior human beings who should be segregated (a concept that fortunately seems to be on the way out). Movies like *Charly* and *Larry*, about mentally retarded people, reinforce this concept. Charly is presumed to be incapable of doing anything except sitting on a park swing. Larry is reintegrated into society *only* when it's discovered that he isn't retarded--the implication being that retarded people are hopeless dependents who require lifelong institutionalization. Regular inclusion of disabled people as participants in society would lend emphasis to the extremely wide range of things they *can* do, rather than to what they cannot do.

* * *

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AVOIDING HANDICAPIST STEREOTYPES:

GUIDELINES FOR WRITERS, EDITORS AND BOOK REVIEWERS

The guidelines below were prepared by the Center on Human Policy, the Center for Independent Living in Berkeley, Disabled in Action of Metropolitan New York and the Council on Interracial Books for Children. They are offered as suggestions to assist authors, editors, reviewers and readers in counteracting the common stereotypes about disabled people that are outlined in the article, "Media Portrayals of Disabled People: A Study in Stereotypes."

- Shun one-dimensional characterizations of disabled persons. Portray people with disabilities as having individual and complex personalities and capable of a full range of emotions.

- Avoid depicting disabled persons only in the role of receiving; show disabled people *inter*acting as equals and giving as well as receiving. Too often the person with a disability is presented solely as the recipient of pity.

- Avoid presenting physical characteristics of any kind as determining factors of personality. Be especially cautious about implying a correlation between disability and evil.

- Refrain from depicting persons with disabilities as objects of curiosity. It is entirely appropriate to show disabled people as members of an average population or cast of characters. Most disabled people are able to participate in all facets of life and should be depicted in a wide variety of situations.

- A person's disability should not be ridiculed or made the butt of a joke. (Blind people do not mistake fire hydrants for people or bump into every object in their path, despite the myth-making of Mr. Magoo.)

- Avoid the sensational in depicting disabled people. Be wary of the stereotype of disabled persons as either the victims or perpetrators of violence.

- Refrain from endowing disabled characters with superhuman attributes. To do so is to imply that a disabled person must overcompensate and become superhuman to win acceptance.

- Avoid a Pollyanna-ish plot that implies a disabled person need only have "the will" and the "right attitude" to succeed. Young readers need insights into the societal barriers that keep disabled people from living full lives--systematic discrimination in employment, education and housing; inaccessible transportation and buildings; and exorbitant. expense for necessities.

- Avoid showing disabled people as non-sexual. Show disabled people in loving relationships and expressing the same sexual needs and desires as non-disabled people.

"Early Influences on Occupational Choice"

VI. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

B. **Objective**: Examine how the socialization process affects later occupational choices.

1. **Learning Strategy**:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Prepare a list of occupations (from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles). Using blackboard, have participants brainstorm in large group the skills and knowledge people acquire in their first 18 years that would facilitate or inhibit their success in each field. The list of occupations could include:

lawyer
accountant
secretary
principal
physicist
astronaut
pediatrician
coach
cook
clerk

engineer
nurse
company executive
truck driver
mathematician
surgeon
dentist
librarian
chef

superintendent of schools
dental hygienist
psychologist
judge
homemaker
kindergarten teacher
physical therapist
bookkeeper
pilot

The following example may be used:

ENGINEER			
Girls		Boys	
Facilitators	Inhibitors	Facilitators	Inhibitors
	Math anxiety	Encouraged to build as child (erector sets as toys)	

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes to 1 hour, depending on number of occupations considered

Resources Needed:

Materials: Preceding list or another one constructed by leader
Blackboard (See chart in IV.B.1., "Skills Applicable to Many Careers")

Outcome Criterion:

A list will be compiled and participants will successfully brainstorm facilitators and inhibitors of career development.

"The Joy of Choosing" (Videotape)

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

B. Objective: Examine how the socialization process affects later occupational choices.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "The Joy of Choosing."

c. This tape portrays a variety of individuals who have made many choices in their lives. Some were quite traditional while others were not. Discuss in groups of five to six the ideas generated by the people portrayed. Suggested questions are:

1) Was there anyone on this tape with whom you could identify? Who? Why?

2) What are some of the obstacles faced by women engaged in nontraditional careers?

3) What are some of the obstacles faced by men engaged in nontraditional careers?

4) What types of risks have you taken? What rewards have resulted?

5) What types of problems can result when one member of a relationship chooses to change? Discuss the ways the families mentioned on the tape grew as a result of these changes.

6) What types of support do people in nontraditional fields mention? What types of support does the homemaker have?

7) What impression does the kindergarten boy give as to the age when children become aware of sex roles?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: "The Joy of Choosing" (Videotape)
Video Viewers' Guide No. 4: The Joy of Choosing

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a paragraph discussing one important choice they made and the risks involved.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

VI.C.1.

"Sex-Role Transmitters"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Identify some of the main ways in which sex-role expectations are conveyed to individuals.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is to identify the variety of ways sex-role socialization takes place, including messages from parents, etc.; female-male ratios in schools (administrators, teachers, counselors, cooks, etc.); TV and other media; toys, books, etc; institutional practices (e.g., giving priority to males for work training programs). The strategy can be related to strategies in Goal III.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. In small groups, have participants generate a list of ways in which females and males receive the message that they are to be "feminine" and "masculine." Participants can reflect on what they have read and observed, what was true of their own early years, and what they observe in their students' background and see reflected in current attitudes and behaviors.

c. Share and discuss in large group. Be sure to bring up the question of different messages for different racial groups.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30-40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "You Are What You Say" (Lakoff, 1974)
References: Maccoby & Jacklin (1974); McCoy (1977); Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz (1972)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants list five ways in which the sex-role socialization process takes place.

YOU ARE WHAT YOU SAY[1]

by Robin Lakoff

"Women's language" is that pleasant (dainty?), euphemistic, never-aggressive way of talking we learned as little girls. Cultural bias was built into the language we were allowed to speak, the subjects we were allowed to speak about, and the ways we were spoken of. Having learned our linguistic lesson well, we go out in the world, only to discover that we are communicative cripples--damned if we do, and damned if we don't.

If we refuse to talk "like a lady," we are ridiculed and criticized for being unfeminine. ("She thinks like a man" is, at best, a left-handed compliment.) If we do learn all the fuzzy-headed, unassertive language of our sex, we are ridiculed for being unable to think clearly, unable to take part in a serious discussion, and therefore unfit to hold a position of power.

It doesn't take much of this for a woman to begin feeling she deserves such treatment because of inadequacies in her own intelligence and education.

"Women's language" shows up in all levels of English. For example, women are encouraged and allowed to make far more precise discriminations in naming colors than men do. Words like *mauve, beige, ecru, aquamarine, lavender,* and so on, are unremarkable in a woman's active vocabulary, but largely absent from that of most men. I know of no evidence suggesting that women actually *see* a wider range of colors than men do. It is simply that fine discriminations of this sort are relevant to women's vocabularies, but not to men's; to men, who control most of the interesting affairs of the world, such distinctions are trivial--irrelevant.

In the area of syntax, we find similar gender-related peculiarities of speech. There is one construction, in particular, that women use conversationally far more than men: the tag-question. A tag is midway between an outright statement and a yes-no question; it is less assertive than the former, but more confident than the latter.

A *flat statement* indicates confidence in the speaker's knowledge and is fairly certain to be believed; a *question* indicates a lack of knowledge on some point and implies that the gap in the speaker's knowledge can and will be remedied by an answer. For example, if, at a Little League game, I have had my glasses off, I can legitimately ask someone else: "Was the player out at third?" A *tag question*, being intermediate between statement and question, is used when the speaker is stating a claim, but lacks full confidence in the truth of that claim. So if I say, "Is Joan here?" I will probably not be surprised if my respondent answers "no"; but if I say, "Joan is here, isn't she?" instead, chances are I am already biased in favor of a positive answer, wanting only confirmation. I still want a response, but I have enough knowledge (or think I have) to predict that response. A tag question, then, might be thought of as a statement that doesn't demand to be believed by anyone but the speaker, a way of giving leeway, of not forcing the addressee to go along with the views of the speaker.

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[1] From: Ms. July, 1974, 3, pp. 65-65. Copyright Ms. Magazine Corporation, 1974. Reprinted with permission.

Another common use of the tag-question is in small talk when the speaker is trying to elicit conversation: "Sure is hot here, isn't it?"

But in duscussing personal feelings or opinions, only the speaker normally has any way of knowing the correct answer. Sentences such as "I have a headache, don't I?" are clearly ridiculous. But there are other examples where it is the speaker's opinions, rather than perceptions, for which corroboration is sought, as in "The situation in Southeast Asia is terrible, isn't it?"

While there are, of course, other possible interpretations of a sentence like this, one possibility is that the speaker has a particular answer in mind--"yes" or "no"--but is reluctant to state it baldly. This sort of tag question is much more apt to be used by women than by men in conversation. Why is this the case?

The tag question allows a speaker to avoid commitment, and thereby avoid conflict with the addressee. The problem is that, by so doing, speakers may also give the impression of not really being sure of themselves, or looking to the addressee for confirmation of their views. This uncertainty is reinforced in more subliminal ways, too. There is a peculiar sentence intonation pattern, used almost exclusively by women, as far as I know, which changes a declarative answer into a question. The effect of using the rising inflection typical of a yes-no question is to imply that the speaker is seeking confirmation, even though the speaker is clearly the only one who has the requisite information, which is why the question was put to her in the first place:

(Q) When will dinner be ready?

(A) Oh...around six o'clock...?

It is as though the second speaker were saying, "Six o'clock--if that's okay with you, if you agree." The person being addressed is put in the position of having to provide confirmation. One likely consequence of this sort of speech-pattern in a woman is that, often unbeknownst to herself, the speaker builds a reputation of tentativeness, and others will refrain from taking her seriously or trusting her with any real responsibilities, since she "can't make up her mind," and "isn't sure of herself."

Such idiosyncrasies may explain why women's language sounds much more "polite" than men's. It is polite to leave a decision open, not impose your mind, or views, or claims, on anyone else. So a tag-question is a kind of polite statement, in that it does not force agreement or belief on the addressee. In the same way a request is a polite command, in that it does not force obedience on the addressee, but rather suggests something be done as a favor to the speaker. A clearly stated order implies a threat of certain consequences if it is not followed, and--even more impolite--implies that the speaker is in a superior position and able to enforce the order.

By couching wishes in the form of a request, on the other hand, a speaker implies that if the request is not carried out, only the speaker will suffer; noncompliance cannot harm the addressee. So the decision is really left up to addressee. The distinction becomes clear in these examples:

Close the door.

Please close the door.

Will you close the door?

Will you please close the door?

Won't you close the door?

In the same ways as words and speech patterns used *by* women undermine her image, those used *to describe* women make matters even worse. Often a word may be used of both men and women (and perhaps of things as well); but when it is applied to women, it assumes a special meaning that, by implication rather than outright assertion, is derogatory to women as a group.

The use of euphemisms has this effect. A euphemism is a substitute for a word that has acquired a bad connotation by association with something unpleasant or embarrassing. But almost as soon as the new word comes into common usage, it takes on the same old bad connotations, since feelings about the things or people referred to are not altered by a change of name; thus new euphemisms must be constantly found.

There is one euphemism for *woman* still very much alive. The word, of course is *lady*. *Lady* has a masculine counterpart, namely *gentleman*, occasionally shortened to *gent*. But for some reason *lady* is very much commoner than *gent(leman)*.

The decision to use *lady* rather than *woman*, or vice versa, may considerably alter the sense of a sentence, as the following examples show:

(a) A woman (lady) I know is a dean at Berkeley.

(b) A woman (lady) I know makes amazing things out of shoelaces and old boxes.

The use of *lady* in (a) imparts a frivolous, or nonserious, tone to the sentence: the matter under discussion is not one of great moment. Similarly, in (b), using *lady* here would suggest that the speaker considered the "amazing things" not to be serious art, but merely a hobby or an aberration. If *woman* is used, she might a serious sculptor. To say *lady doctor* is very condescending, since no one ever says *gentleman doctor* or even *man doctor*. For example, mention in the San Francisco *Chronicle* of January 31, 1972, of Madalyn Murray O'Hair as the *lady atheist* reduces her position to that of scatterbrained eccentric. Even *woman atheist* is scarcely defensible: sex is irrelevant to her philosophical position.

Many women argue that, on the other hand, *lady* carries with it overtones recalling the age of chivalry: conferring exalted stature on the person so referred to. This makes the term seem polite at first, but we must also remember that these implications are perilous: they suggest that a "lady" is helpless, and cannot do things by herself.

Lady can also be used to infer frivolousness, as in titles of organizations. Those that have a serious purpose (not merely that of enabling "the ladies" to spend time with one another) cannot use the word *lady* in their titles, but less serious ones may. Compare the *Ladies' Auxiliary* of a men's group, or the *Thursday Evening Ladies' Browning and Garden Society* with *Ladies' Liberation* or *Ladies' Strike for Peace.*

What is curious about this split is that *lady* is in origin a euphemism--a substitute that puts a better face on something people find uncomfortable--for *woman*. What kind of euphemism is it that subtly denigrates the people to whom it refers? Perhaps *lady* functions as a euphemism for *woman* because it does not contain the sexual implications present in *woman*: it is not "embarrassing" in that way. If this is so, we may expect that, in the future, *lady* will replace woman as the primary word for the human female, since *woman* will have become too blatantly sexual. That this distinction is already made in some contexts at least is shown in the following examples, where you can try replacing *woman* with *lady:*

(a) She's only twelve, but she's already a woman.

(b) After ten years in jail, Harry wanted to find a woman.

(c) She's my woman, see, so don't mess around with her.

Another common substitute for *woman* is *girl*. One seldom hears a man past the age of adolescence referred to as a boy, save in expressions like "going out with the boys," which are meant to suggest an air of adolescent frivolity and irresponsibility. But women of all ages are "girls": one can have a man--not a boy--Friday, but only a girl--never a woman or even a lady--Friday; women have girlfriends, but men do not--in a nonsexual sense--have boyfriends. It may be that this use of *girl* is euphemistic in the same way the use of *lady* is: in stressing the idea of immaturity, it removes the sexual connotations lurking in *woman*. *Girl* brings to mind irresponsibility: you don't send a girl to do a woman's errand (or even, for that matter, a boy's errand). She is a person who is both too immature and too far from real life to be entrusted with responsibilities or with decisions of any serious or important nature.

Now let's take a pair of words which, in terms of the possible relationships in an earlier society, were simple male-female equivalents, analogous to *bull : cow*. Suppose we find that, for independent reasons, society has changed in such a way that the original meanings now are irrelevant. Yet the words have not been discarded, but have acquired new meanings, metaphorically related to their original senses. But suppose these new metaphorical uses are no longer parallel to each other. By seeing where the parallelism breaks down, we discover something about the different roles played by men and women in this culture. One good example of such a divergence through time is found in the pair, *master : mistress*. Once used with reference to one's power over servants, these words have become unusable today in their original master-servant sense as the relationship has become less prevalent in our society. But the words are still common.

Unless used with reference to animals, *master* now generally refers to a man who has acquired consummate ability in some field, normally nonsexual. But its feminine counterpart cannot be used this way. It is practically restricted to its sexual sense of "paramour." We start out with two terms, both roughly paraphrasable as "one who has power over another." But the masculine form, once one person is no longer able to have absolute power over another, becomes usable metaphorically in the sense of "having power over *something.*" *Master* requires as its object only the name of some activity, something inanimate and abstract. But *mistress* requires a masculine noun in the possessive to precede it. One cannot say: "Rhonda is a mistress." One must be *someone's* mistress. A man is defined by what he does, a woman by her sexuality, that is, in terms of one particular aspect of her relationship to men. It is one thing to be an *old master* like Hans Holbein, and another to be an *old mistress.*

The same is true of the words *spinster* and *bachelor*--gender words for "one who is not married." The resemblance ends with the definition. While *bachelor* is a neuter term, often used as a compliment, *spinster* normally is used pejoratively, with connotations of prissiness, fussiness, and so on. To be a bachelor implies that one has the choice of marrying or not, and this is what makes the idea of a bachelor existence attractive, in the popular literature. He has been pursued and has successfully eluded his pursuers. But a spinster is one who has not been pursued, or at least not seriously. She is old, unwanted goods. The metaphorical connotations of *bachelor* generally suggest sexual freedom; of *spinster,* puritanism or celibacy.

These examples could be multiplied. It is generally considered a *faux pas,* in society, to congratulate a woman on her engagement, while it is correct to congratulate her fiancé. Why is this? The reason seems to be that it is impolite to remind people of things that may be uncomfortable to them. To congratulate a woman on her engagement is really to say, "Thank goodness! You had a close call!" For the man, on the other hand, there was no such danger. His choosing to marry is viewed as a good thing, but not something essential.

The linguistic double standard holds throughout the life of the relationship. After marriage, bachelor and spinster become man and wife, not man and woman. The woman whose husband dies remains "John's widow"; John, however, is never "Mary's widower."

Finally, why is it that salesclerks and others are so quick to call women customers "dear," "honey," and other terms of endearment they really have no business doing? A male customer would never put up with it. But women, like children, are supposed to enjoy these endearments, rather than being offended by them.

In more ways than one, it's time to speak up.

"Script Checklist"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Identify some of the main ways in which sex-role expectations are conveyed to individuals.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

Prior to workshop participants should complete "Script Checklist."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Divide into small groups and have participants share only what they are comfortable sharing. Do not collect worksheets. Have participants pay close attention to questions 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 21, and 22.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 15 minutes to complete checklist
30 minutes to discuss

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Script Checklist"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three new self-awarenesses gained from completing the checklist.

SCRIPT CHECKLIST

Name________________________

1. In my life I am supposed to...________________________
2. When I was 12 to 14 years old, life promised to be________________________
3. In what ways have your attitudes and feelings about being a man/woman changed in your lifetime?________________________
4. What have you recently decided about your future?________________________
5. What is the most important thing you have to do right now?________________________
6. What do you see yourself doing 10 years from now if all goes well?________________________
7. Who is your favorite person or idol? (fictional, historical, today)________________________
8. What did your mother tell you not to do?________________________
9. What did your father tell you not to do?________________________
10. What did your mother tell you to do?________________________

11. What did your father tell you to do?____

____

12. What do you feel your parents expect of your life?____________________________

____

13. What is your recurring dream?____

____

14. How does or did your parent of the other sex deal with problems?__________

____

15. How does or did your parent of the same sex deal with problems?__________

____

16. In which life position do you spend most of your time?__________________

____

17. What significant events does your family history include (e.g., death, alcoholism, divorce)? How did these affect you?____________________

____

____

18. What do you do for recreation?____________________Do you enjoy it?______

19. Do you or did you have a nickname?________________________________

20. Do you have any favorite slogans? ________________________________

____

21. Which injunction seems to be strongest in your life?

_____Don't exist

_____Don't be who you are

_____Don't have any fun

_____Don't get close, don't touch

_____Don't grow up

_____Don't make it if you do grow up

_____Don't ...

22. What are some of your positive "DO" messages in relation to your sex?______

____

____

"Media Messages"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

D. Objective: Look at the ways in which the mass media perpetuate stereotypes.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to the workshop have participants explore ways in which men and women are shown on TV, and in books and magazines. Magazines and other printed matter could be brought to the workshop by the leader.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. In small groups, have participants examine the material for sex bias or share their observations made prior to the workshop.

c. Discuss, in large group, what the participants discovered. Discussion questions to consider:

1) How are women/men presented in ads? Does race and/or age make a difference? Socioeconomic level?
2) What are the characteristics of women? Of men? Of minority women? Of minority men? Of older vs. younger people?
3) Are the characteristics positive or negative?
4) Who has the leadership role; who is shown as the person being helped/helping (man or woman) (white or racial minority)?

d. Share the NOW ad, "Hire Him, He's Got Great Legs," as an example of efforts to raise consciousness.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Old magazines and newspapers
Handout: Example of ad sponsored by NOW, "Hire Him, He's Got Great Legs"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will point out examples of advertisements that show sex, race, and age stereotyping.

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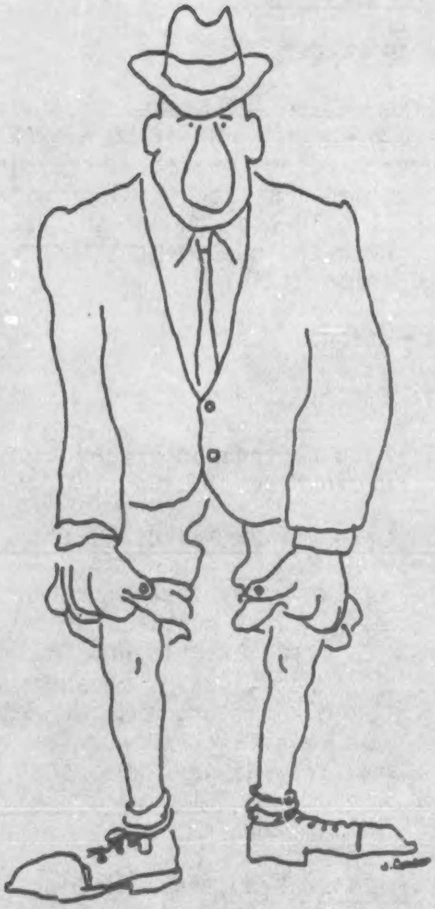

"Hire him. He's got great legs."

If women thought this way about men they would be awfully silly.

When men think this way about women they're silly, too.

Women should be judged for a job by whether or not they can do it.

In a world where women are doctors, lawyers, judges, brokers, economists, scientists, political candidates, professors and company presidents, any other viewpoint is ridiculous.

Think of it this way. When we need all the help we can get, why waste half the brains around?

Womanpower. It's much too good to waste.

For information: NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund Inc., 127 East 59th Street, Dept. K, New York, New York 10022

"Seeing Is Believing"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

D. Objective: Look at the ways in which the mass media perpetuate stereotypes.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Although the influence of TV messages on male and female roles has not been a major focus of BORN FREE, the power of the media should not be overlooked or ignored. Participants should be made aware of ways in which media messages, along with those from parents, peers, and educators, influence student self-perceptions and career options. Leader may wish to supplement this strategy with actual analysis of TV programs and commercials.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants read the handout "Seeing Is Believing: Toward Visual Media Free of Bias" (Pickens, 1977).

c. Suggestions for discussion:

1) Why does special attention need to be given to visual media?
2) In what subtle and not-so-subtle ways do visual messages communicate sex-role and racial stereotypes?
3) What kinds of messages are communicated about men and women, racial minorities, and age groups, and their roles in current popular television shows?
4) In what ways are race, age, and sex stereotypes similar? Different?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Seeing Is Believing: Toward Visual Media Free of Bias" (Pickens, 1977)
Reference: Pickens, Rao, & Roberts (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five criteria for discerning sex bias in visual media.

SEEING IS BELIEVING[1]

AVOIDING SEXISM

Laws and suggestions regarding treatment of the sexes discussed elsewhere in the book relate equally well to visual media and some points are crucial here, for example: sex-role stereotyping.

Grant equal respect to women and men in visual media and avoid trivializing or stereotyping either sex. Visual media often foster the notion that men always are dominant and women always subordinate. Depict women and men of comparable work levels or positions equally. For example, photos might show both standing or sitting to reinforce their equality. Depicting the man seated at his desk and the woman standing at his side supports women-as-subordinate thinking. Even when dealing with supervisory relationships, positive human relations may be fostered by attention to positioning of the subjects.

Visual media also frequently support the idea that men are responsible persons while women are not. For example, a story or slide presentation showing only some of the people working on a project presents the communicator with a choice about subjects to use--and about equal treatment. If all the supervisors are men (as is still often the case), the result will be all-male groupings if the communicator elects to depict only the top people. An alternative is to select subjects that represent a cross section of the staff and thereby give recognition to some women--and a broader range of employees.

Perhaps the most obvious reinforcement of sex-role stereotyping is the treatment of women as pretty, sociable and shallow. Such sexism often occurs at grand openings and similar occasions. Showing the local beauty queen about to cut the ribbon substantiates limited thinking about abilities of women. As one option, picture a prominent businesswoman (or businessman) doing the honors or otherwise participating in the opening, thus supporting expanded thinking about the abilities of women.

Of course, the communicator has to work with what is available. If a beauty-queen picture must be used, make it one giving the woman some depth, such as showing her interested in merchandise at the new store. Illustrate that she knows how to do something besides cut ribbons.

Represent both women and men in visual media. Following this guideline can be as simple as checking faces in the viewfinder before shooting, carefully selecting the footage to use or cropping judiciously.

A balance need not be struck in every photograph, slide or film segment. The total publication, slide presentation or film should be evaluated, as should the organization's total communication effort for an extended period of time.

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1. From: Pickens, J.E., "Seeing Is Believing: Toward Visual Media Free of Bias." In J.E. Pickens, P.W. Rao, and L.C. Roberts (Eds.), Without Bias: A Guidebook for Nondiscriminatory Communications. San Francisco: International Association of Business Communicators, 1977. Permission granted.

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Cartoons easily can contribute to biased communication since much humor is still based on sex-role stereotypes. The characterization of women as dumb broads with no business sense often appears, as does the characterization of men as inept around the house. Such cartoons should be avoided and consideration given to substituting others that still are humorous--but that make a statement about equal treatment. Wise use of the element of humor can be a light-hearted, subtle way to discourage stereotyping.

The artist bringing life to objects such as machinery or office equipment should refer to the points made previously about stereotyping and representation. For example, illustrations may depict the big, fast, sleek car as male and the compact, dumpy, utility model as female. Such treatment isn't realistic and can be offensive.

Adhere to non-sexist writing principles in cutlines, scripts and other language associated with visual media, as set forth elsewhere in this publication.

AVOIDING RACISM AND ETHNOCENTRISM

Grant equal respect to people in visual media, without regard to racial or ethnic group. Avoid situations that consistently show members of any racial or ethnic group as superior or inferior. No matter how subtle, the implication is that certain racial or ethnic groups belong in particular roles, for example, Chicanos consistently portrayed as blue-collar workers or Asians as loyal, subservient employees. Racial or ethnic slurs used in cartoons are offensive to many people and are rapidly becoming unacceptable put-downs for any audience.

Subjects should be depicted as they are. Asian skin is not bright yellow; shades of brown or tan are more true to life. Facial structures vary greatly among Chinese, Japanese and Koreans and blacks don't all look alike, either in skin tone or facial structure. Allowing time to research can result in more accurate communication.

Portray in visual media a balanced representation of racial and ethnic groups. As outlined in the discussion on equal representation of the sexes, plan, shoot, crop, sketch and edit for a realistic balance. Note the word "realistic"; communication should reflect the proportionate makeup of the organization or community, not an artificial one. If a communicator takes affirmative action by seeking out and including a visual balance of racial and ethnic groups at a wide range of job levels, he or she may help improve that makeup by encouraging persons to aspire to roles that have traditionally been out of reach.

Adhere to nondiscriminatory writing principles in cutlines, scripts and other language associated with visual media.

AVOIDING OTHER FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION

Other forms of discrimination occur based on age or physical or mental ability. Again, the guidelines are similar to those applied to sexism or racism.

Grant equal respect in visual media to persons of all ages and abilities. Present a balanced representation of ages and abilities. Adhere to nondiscriminatory writing principles in cutlines, scripts and other language associated with visual media.

"Watch Your Language"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

E. Objective: Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Be prepared to read scenes one through four in the article by Hogan and summarize this guideline.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Read scenes one through four in the article by Hogan (1975).

c. In small groups, have participants relate what they have heard to their own language use.

d. Distribute copies of "Tips on Avoiding Sexist Language: McGraw-Hill Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes" (excerpted in Hogan article, attached). Leader should summarize its contents.

e. Have groups discuss ways in which one might motivate colleagues to depart from the traditional use of male generic pronouns to newer forms of expression such as those advocated by McGraw-Hill, the American Psychological Association, the National Council of Teachers of English, and many other professional associations.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Tips on Avoiding Sexist Language" (in Hogan)
Attached article: "A Woman Is Not a Girl and Other Lessons in Corporate Speech" (Hogan, 1975) (See also the handout "How to Tell a Businessman from a Businesswoman," in VI.A.2.)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three new insights gained from this strategy.

A WOMAN IS NOT A GIRL AND OTHER LESSONS IN CORPORATE SPEECH[1]

by Patricia Hogan

If you listen carefully to businessmen's conversations, you can learn much about their attitudes toward women.

SCENE ONE: A planning meeting. Ten men are seated around a large, circular conference table. One of the men leading the meeting has forgotten to bring a crucial document. Discovering this, he says, "I'll have my girl bring it right over." Five minutes later, a woman who appears to be in her early forties knocks on the door, excuses herself for the interruption, and hands the man the document.

SCENE TWO: Mr. Z calls Sally Jones, one of the firm's account executives, into his office to congratulate her on landing an account the company has been pursuing for years.

"Sally, you did a first-rate job on that Mercer account," he says. "You really surprised everyone. Don't get me wrong--it's not that we didn't think you could do the job. It's just . . . well, how did you manage to get old Mercer to sign? Never mind, we won't go into that," he says with a wink.

Later, Mr. Z sees Ms. Jones in the executive dining room, approaches her table, and again congratulates her. "Bet you guys don't know what a terrific little saleswoman we have here," he says to the men lunching with Ms. Jones.

By day's end, Mr. Z has commended Ms. Jones five times on her achievement.

SCENE THREE: Six men and a lone woman attend a luncheon. The table conversation turns to capital gains, product diversification, and a new Management Information System (MIS) that will facilitate financial reporting for the large multinational corporation for which they work.

Halfway through lunch, one of the men leans over and whispers to the woman, "Are we boring you?"

SCENE FOUR: A group of executives meet to discuss a merger. During the course of the discussion, one of the male vice-presidents says, "This is going to be a bitch to pull off." He immediately turns to the two women present and apologizes for the five-letter word.

SCENE FIVE: A male manager has recently transferred to head a new department. On the third day in his new assignment, he emerges from his office and asks a female standing near the Xerox machine to make four copies of a report and to get him a cup of coffee. The woman introduces herself; she is one of the production managers who report to him.

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[1] From: Business and Society Review, Summer 1975, pp. 34-38. Reprinted by permission.

[2] Patricia Hogan is manager of internal communications for the Operating Group, First National City Bank.

As women advance in the business world, men are often confronted with situations like those above--situations which call for new forms of behavior and a new awareness of and effort to overcome the sexism inherent in daily conversations.

The men in these five situations have violated certain basic communications rules. In the first instance, the man has referred to a mature female as a girl. The term *girl* implies a certain dependency associated with children. The word is as denigrating when applied to a woman as the word *boy* is when applied to a man. Secondly, the businessman identified the woman by her sex and not by her function (in this case, secretary) as would have been appropriate in this situation. Thirdly, the man's use of the word *my* indicates that he thinks of the secretary as personal property rather than as an employee of the company.

In the second example, Mr. Z's repeated and overblown praise belies any conviction that women are competent. His comments demonstrate his astonishment at Ms. Jones's achievement. In addition, he tries to attribute her success to feminine wiles or to sexual favors granted to "old Mercer." Mr. Z also patronizes Ms. Jones by describing her as a "terrific *little* saleswoman."

In the third case, the man's question is based on the assumption that women are not interested in business matters. If he did not accept the stereotype of woman as primarily concerned with domestic and certain other interests, he would not ask the question. The very phrasing of the question ("Are we boring you?") reveals that he views the men as controlling the conversation and the woman as a passive participant. She is seen as a listener and not as an equal partner in the luncheon discussion.

In the fourth instance, the vice-president apologizes not because he thinks he has offended an individual, but because he has been conditioned to believe that certain forms of language are not used in the presence of women. In this particular case, the man apologized despite the fact that one of the women had called the president of the company being acquired a "fucking madman" during the course of the meeting, thus clearly indicating that she took no exception to such language.

The manager in the fifth illustration obviously assigns women to certain roles within the business world. He finds it natural to assume that a woman standing near a Xerox machine is either a secretary or a clerk, and his remarks flow from that assumption.

WORDS OFTEN EXCLUDE WOMEN

Businessmen do no better when it comes to the written word, as an examination of internal memoranda and other documents will show. Indeed, business has created and uses an extensive terminology that excludes women. Some of its more familiar phrases include manpower planning, man-hours, workman's compensation, the right man for the job, etc.

It can, of course, be argued that these terms are meant generically and therefore include women. However, the effect is frequently the opposite. To most executives, *manpower planning* means plotting the future careers of the key men in the organization or matching key men with key positions. Invariably, the generic evokes a masculine image, especially when used in a business environment, which has long been a male preserve.

Most business terminology can be easily changed without resorting to awkward or strained language. For example, manpower planning becomes *staff resources planning*. Workman's compensation becomes *worker's compensation*. Right man for the job becomes *right person for the job*.

Many companies already have issued guidelines to help executives achieve nonsexist writing. (The McGraw-Hill "Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes" is perhaps the most notable and comprehensive of these. Although aimed at authors of textbooks, the McGraw-Hill guidelines are valuable for everyone.)

De-sexing the spoken and written language, however, requires more than the invention and utilization of nonsexist words and phrases. Behavior modification and attitudinal change are required. And because language is the externalization of our thought processes, it is our thinking about women that must change. Women must no longer be perceived as inherently bound to play limited roles in society. Sexist stereotypes, such as the indecisive female executive, must be discarded.

Businesswomen must be seen as the equals--for better or for worse--of businessmen: competent, aggressive, ambitious, decisive individuals. They must be viewed as people serious about their careers. As effective managers. Only when we think of females in this way will we be able to approach communicating with them in the proper manner.

Compared with the spoken word, de-sexing the written word should prove easy, because people tend to think more carefully about what they commit to print. We take the time to revise and refine our words.

Conversations are more spontaneous, therefore more apt to show people's biases. Also, people sometimes play power games on the conversational field. Conversations can be used either consciously or subconsciously to "put a woman in her place"--to make her submissive. They can be used, as in the Mr.Z-Ms. Jones example, to make a woman doubt her own abilities. They can be used to draw inordinate attention to a woman (causing embarrassment or making an already uncomfortable situation more uncomfortable), as in the case of the apologetic male vice-president who feels compelled to excuse himself for his language. The message he has sent via his apology is that women are a special breed of people who must be protected from vulgar language. (The corollary

(continued on page 377)

TIPS ON AVOIDING SEXIST LANGUAGE:

EXCERPTS FROM MCGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY GUIDELINES FOR EQUAL TREATMENT OF THE SEXES

The word sexism was coined, by analogy to racism, to denote discrimination based on gender. In its original sense, sexism referred to prejudice against the female sex. In a broader sense, the term now indicates any arbitrary stereotyping of males and females on the basis of their gender.

Men and women should be treated primarily as people, and not primarily as members of opposite sexes. Their shared humanity of common attributes should be stressed--not their gender difference. Neither sex should be stereotyped or arbitrarily assigned to a leading or secondary role.

Women and men should be treated with the same respect, dignity, and seriousness. Neither should be trivialized or stereotyped. In descriptions of women, a patronizing or girl-watching tone should be avoided, as should sexual innuendoes, jokes, and puns.

No	Yes
the fair sex; the weaker sex	women
the distaff side	the female side or line
the girls or the ladies (when adult females are meant)	the women
girl, as in: I'll have my girl check that.	I'll have my secretary (or my assistant) check that. (Or use the person's name.)
lady used as a modifier, as in lady lawyer	lawyer (A woman may be identified simply through the choice of pronouns, as in: The lawyer made her summation to the jury. Try to avoid gender modifiers altogether. When you *must* modify, use woman or female, as in: a course on women writers, or the airline's first female pilot.)
the little woman; the better half; the ball and chain	wife
female-gender word forms, such as authoress, poetess, Jewess	author, poet, Jew

(continued)

female-gender or diminutive word forms, such as suffragette, usherette, aviatrix	suffragist, usher, aviator (or pilot)
libber (a put-down)	feminist; liberationist
sweet young thing	young woman; girl
housewife	homemaker for a person who works at home, or rephrase with a more precise or more inclusive term

In references to humanity at large, language should operate to include women and girls. Terms that tend to exclude females should be avoided whenever possible.

(A) The word man has long been used not only to denote a person of male gender, but also generically to denote humanity at large. To many people today, however, the word man has become so closely associated with the first meaning (a male human being) that they consider it no longer broad enough to be applied to any person or to human beings as a whole. In deference to this position, alternative expressions should be used in place of man (or derivative constructions used generically to signify humanity at large) whenever such substitutions can be made without producing an awkward or artificial construction. In cases where man-words must be used, special efforts should be made to ensure that pictures and other devices make explicit that such references include women.

Here are some possible substitutions for man-words:

No	Yes
mankind	humanity, human beings, human race, people
primitive man	primitive people or peoples; primitive human beings; primitive men and women
man's achievements	human achievements
If a man drove 50 miles at 60 mph...	If a person (or driver) drove 50 miles at 60 mph...
the best man for the job	the best person (or candidate) for the job
manmade	artificial; synthetic, manufactured; constructed; of human origin

(continued)

manpower	human power; human energy; workers; workforce
grow to manhood	grow to adulthood; grow to manhood or womanhood

(B) The English language lacks a generic singular pronoun signifying "he or she," and therefore it has been customary and gramatically sanctioned to use masculine pronouns in expressions such as "one... he," "anyone...he," and "each child opens his book." Nevertheless, avoid when possible the pronouns he, him, and his in reference to the hypothetical person or humanity in general.

Various alternatives may be considered:

(1) Reword to eliminate unnecessary gender pronouns.

No	Yes
The average American drinks his coffee black.	The average American drinks black coffee.

(2) Recast into the plural. (Most Americans drink their coffee black.)

(3) Replace the masculine pronoun with one, you, he or she, her or his, as appropriate. (Use he or she and its variations sparingly to avoid clumsy prose.)

(4) Alternate male and female expressions and examples.

No	Yes
I've often heard supervisors say, "He's not the right man for the job," or "He lacks the qualifications for success."	I've often heard supervisors say, "She's not the right person for the job," or "He lacks the qualifications for success."

(5) To avoid severe problems of repetition or inept wording, it may sometimes be best to use the generic he freely, but to add, in the preface and as often as necessary in the text, emphatic statements to the effect that the masculine pronouns are being used for succinctness and are intended to refer to both females and males.

(continued)

(C) Occupational terms ending in man should be replaced whenever possible by terms that can include members of either sex unless they refer to a particular person.

No	Yes
congressman	member of Congress; representative (but Congressman Koch and Congresswoman Holtzman)
businessman	business executive; business manager
fireman	firefighter
mailman	mail carrier; letter carrier
salesman	sales representative; salesperson; sales clerk
insurance man	insurance agent
statesman	leader; public servant
chairman	the person presiding at (or chairing) a meeting; the presiding officer; the chair; head; leader; coordinator; moderator
cameraman	camera operator
foreman	supervisor

(D) Language that assumes all readers are male should be avoided.

No	Yes
you and your wife	you and your spouse
when you shave in the morning	when you brush your teeth (or wash up) in the morning

Insofar as possible, job titles should be nonsexist. Different nomenclature should not be used for the same job depending on whether it is held by a male or by a female. (See also paragraph (C) for additional examples of words ending in man.)

(continued)

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No	Yes
steward or purser or stewardess	flight attendant
policeman and policewoman	police officer
maid and houseboy	house or office cleaner; servant

Unnecessary reference to or emphasis on a woman's marital status should be avoided. Whether married or not, a woman may be referred to by the name by which she chooses to be known, whether her name is her original name or her married name.

Males should not always be first in order of mention. Instead, alternate the order, sometimes using: women and men, gentlemen and ladies, she or he, her or his.

being, of course, that they must be protected from the harsh realities of the business world and therefore denied the same opportunity for advancement as men have.) He has also called attention to the fact that, as he perceives it, two women are now intruding on the meeting being held by the male executives.

One of the chief mistakes made in everyday conversations is to regard people as the representatives of a group rather than as individuals. The apologetic vice-president in example number four did not consider the people to whom he spoke as *individuals*. If he had, he might have apologized to a man present who found the language being used offensive. If the manager in the fifth example thought in terms of an individual rather than a class of people, he would have taken the time to find the woman's position before asking her to make copies of his report and fetch coffee.

Nonsexist speaking habits can be acquired only by redirecting thinking patterns, discarding all the old assumptions and learning to interact on a one-to-one basis.

P/E SR-M
CD-M TL-M

VI.E.2.

"You Are What You Say"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

E. Objective: Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instruction:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader will summarize portions of Lakoff and Graham articles for the entire group.

c. Have participants share impressions of the articles in the entire group.

d. Have participants break into small groups and talk about the part language has played in their career development and certain words/phrases they like/do not like to hear/use. Ask them to consider how language can be both sex-and race-biased (e.g., "Geisha girl," "Black Mammy"), and how this affects career development.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached articles: "You Are What You Say" (Lakoff, 1974) (See VI.C.1.);
"How to Make Trouble: The Making of a Nonsexist Dictionary" (Graham, 1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list two ways in which language has played a part in their own career development.

HOW TO MAKE TROUBLE:
THE MAKING OF A NONSEXIST DICTIONARY[1]

by Alma Graham[2]

The first dictionary to define *sexism,* to include the phrase *liberated women*, and to recognize *Ms.* was a wordbook for children published in 1972 by American Heritage Publishing Company.

It contains 35,000 entries, which were selected after an unprecedented analysis of 5 million words encountered by American children in their schoolbooks.

When the task of compilation began in 1969, we could not predict that the dictionary would be the first ever published in which lexicographers made a conscious effort to correct the sex biases that exist in English as it is commonly used. But the computer revealed a pattern that we who were editing the dictionary could not ignore: in schoolbooks, whether the subject is reading, mathematics, social studies, art, or science, males command center stage. Boys and girls may go to school in equal numbers; they may be graded for equal achievements; but the computer had tipped the scales on the side of male supremacy.

In some ways the American Heritage computer was no different from any other. It was stupid. Though it devoured reams of printed matter--10,000 passages of 500 words each culled from 1,000 books and magazines--it couldn't read. To the computer the "lead" in flaking paint was no different from the "lead" in a play, and a "row" of cabbages was the same as a "row" between lovers. Fortunately, this lack of discrimination was unimportant, for in addition to alphabetizing all its words and ranking them by the frequency of their usage, the computer's unprecedented contribution was to deliver 700,000 citation slips, each of which showed a word in three lines of context. By using these slips, the editors could see each word as it is used in sentences that schoolchildren read, and we could in turn write definitions that schoolchildren could comprehend.

The original objective in using a computer was this obvious one of gaining access to primary sources. Peter Davies, the editor in chief of the school dictionary, was the first to recognize what else the computer had delivered. To Davies, the vast body of words was a reflection of the culture talking to its children. He suspected that if imaginatively used, the computer could also supply a profile of what was being said between the lines.

For example, Davies noticed that when adults write for one another, they refer to young people as *children* almost as often as they call them *boys* and

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[1] From: Ms., December 1973, 6, pp. 12-16. © 1973 Ms Magazine Corp. Reprinted with permission.

[2] Alma Graham is Associate Editor of the American Heritage Dictionary division. She was co-author, with Dure Jo Gillikin, of "Some Women Writers in the Sixties" in "Red Clay Reader 7," and is now planning an anthology of writings on sexism in language.

girls. When writing books and stories for children, however, adults use the gender words *boy* and *girl* twice as often as the neutral words *child* and *children*. When the culture talks to its children, it is careful to distinguish them by sex. Moreover, no matter what the subject being taught, girls and women are always in a minority. Overall, the ratio in schoolbooks of *he* to *she*, *him* to *her*, and *his* to *hers* was almost four to one. Even in home economics, the traditional preserve of the female, the pronoun *he* predominated by nearly two to one.

It was suggested that some of those excess *he*'s might apply not to boys and men but to the unspecified singular subject, as in: a person...he; a student...his; someone...him. To check this out I made a survey of pronoun citations from an earlier, experimental sampling of 100,000 words. Out of 940 citations for *he*, 744 were applied to male human beings, 128 to male animals, and 36 to persons such as farmers and sailors who were assumed to be male. Only 32 referred to the unspecified singular subject. The conclusion was inescapable: the reason most of the pronouns in schoolbooks were male in gender was because most of the subjects being written about were men and boys.

In the real world, there are 100 women for every 95 men. Yet in the books read by schoolchildren, there are over seven times as many men as women and over twice as many boys as girls.

Then another oddity came to light. Despite the preponderance of the words *man* and *boy* in textbooks, the word *mother* occurs more frequently than the word *father*, and the word *wife* is used three times as often as the word *husband*. Women, it would seem, are typecast in the supporting roles that refer to their relationships to men and children.

Might this fact simply imply that in the world of the elementary school the mother is seen as the chief parent? The situation changes when the subject words analyzed are not *mother* and *father* but *daughter* and *son*. An examination of citation slips showed that four times as many sons and daughters are referred to as the children of a male parent (Jim's son; the landlord's daughter) as of a female parent (her son; Mrs. Greenwood's daughter).

Other kinship-term citations revealed still more about this schoolbook never-never land. Two out of every three mothers are mentioned in relation to male children. Father references are even more extreme: four out of every five fathers are fathers of a male. And there's more bald bias: twice as many uncles as aunts, and of those aunts, four times as many have nephews (Charley's aunt) as have nieces (Nelly's aunt); sons outnumber daughters by better than two to one, and every single firstborn child is a son.

Where have all the young girls gone?

It seems clear that they have grown up and have been given (or taken) in marriage--because in schoolbooks wives are three times as numerous as husbands, showing that the speakers or main characters are males. Furthermore, many other words besides *husband* serve as counterparts of *wife*. Farmers' wives and farm wives (but no farm husbands) appear in the citations, as do diplomats' wives and Cabinet wives.

Obviously, the basic imbalance in male/female pairs was far more than simply a numbers game. The 700,000 computer citation slips contained the evidence that boys and girls were also being taught separate sets of values, different expectations, and divergent goals. Boys in the schoolbooks ran races, rode bicycles, drove fast cars, and took off in spaceships for Mars. Girls, on the other hand, were less concerned with doing than with being. After reading, "He was the manliest of his sex and she was the loveliest of hers," a child would say that the word comparable to *manly* was *lovely*, not *womanly*. In the sentence, "The men are strong, virile, and graceful, and the girls often beauties," we note that girls, not women, are paired with men and that *virile* is parallel to *beautiful*. A feminine figure, a feminine voice, and a feminine laugh are no match for masculine prerogatives, masculine egos, and masculine drives. The "mannish uniform" of a female general in the Chinese Army is condemned by the very adjective that describes it, but three modifiers commend "a very feminine dream gown."

If this new dictionary were to serve elementary students without showing favoritism to one sex or the other, an effort would have to be made to restore the gender balance. We would need more examples featuring females, and the examples would have to ascribe to girls and women the active, inventive, and adventurous human traits traditionally reserved for men and boys.

Our new archetypal woman took form gradually. Each of the dozen editors writing and reviewing word entries had special moments of insight and decision when we recognized her presence among us. Mine came at the word *brain*, where a computer citation asserted "he has *brains* and courage." In what seemed at the time an act of audacity, I changed the pronoun. "She has *brains* and courage."

As the number of word entries grew, the new woman made her way from example to example, establishing per priorities, aspirations, and tastes. She was "a woman of dedicated political *principles*." She "made a *name* for herself" and "everyone *praised* her good sense and learning." When she "*plunged* into her work, her mind began to *percolate*" (not her coffee), and "she *prided* herself on her eloquence" (not on the sheen of her freshly waxed floors).

Her appearances in the dictionary were widely separated, of course. Her brothers and traditional sisters continued to surround and outnumber her, example for example. But she had arrived, and from A, where at *abridge* she quoted the 19th Amendment, to Z, when "she *zipped* down the hill on her sled," her spirit, character, and credentials were never in doubt.

As the feminists--male and female--who had brought her into the lexicon cheered her on, "her *determination* to win" was bolstered by our "*devout* wish for her success."

Men in the dictionary examples continued to be active and daring, competitive and combative; but the liberated man could be vulnerable, too. He might be "striving to attain *mastery* over his emotions," but he was not disgraced if "his resolve began to *waver*" or if "tears *welled* up in his eyes." Like the new woman, he had a freer choice of careers than heretofore: "He *teaches* kindergarten" and "he *studies* typing at night."

Ms. was the new word we watched with the greatest degree of interest. Some of us favored adopting it right away, but a problem arose over its pronunciation: it was an abbreviation that anyone could write but that no one could say. Arguments over "miz" or "mis" or "em es" continued through the summer. Then, in October, Bruce Bohle, our usage editor, urged that we enter *Ms.* in the dictionary as an abbreviation whether or not the title could be pronounced with ease. Thus supported, I wrote the definition and Peter Davies provided a note explaining the parallel with *Mr.*, the derivation from *mistress*, and the pronunciation possibilities.

Ms. or Ms An abbreviation used as a title of courtesy before a woman's last name or before her given name and last name, whether she is married or not.

At the same time that womanpower in the dictionary was beginning to be felt, consciousness of woman's powerlessness in the language was rising. As a lexicographer and feminist, I had started a notebook on sexism in language, collecting examples of ways in which men and women were classified as human beings by being labeled with male or female words.

One method used in this socializing process is a tactic I called "my virtue-is-your-vice." Since men and women are supposed to be polar opposites, what is considered admirable in one has to be contemptible in the other. If a woman is commended for the gentle qualities that make her *feminine*, then a man must be condemned for any similar show of softness with the epithet *effeminate*. A man's tears are *womanish*; a woman's uniform *mannish*. The lessons to be learned by both male and female are clear: biology is not only destiny; it is character and personality.

Another trick of socialization is to label what we consider to be the exception to the rule: the *woman* doctor, the *male* nurse, the career *girl* (the phrase *career man* is restricted to government service). The term "feminine logic" illustrates the most negatively sexist use of the modifier tactic since it implies nonlogic or lack of logic. Because *logic* unmodified is assumed by men to apply to men, a woman who thinks logically is said to have "a masculine mind" (a supposed compliment that serves as a questionable exception to the my-virtue-is-your-vice rule).

Then there is the "trivializing tactic." This tactic operates through female gender forms, such as *poetess* and *usherette*, and through the put-down process that turns *liberationist* into *libber*, just as it once turned *suffragist* into *suffragette*.

The tendency in the language that I called "praise him/blame her" is still another device. From Eve and Pandora on, the female has been held responsible for evil and assigned to a semantic house of ill fame. Titles of honor illustrate the point particularly well. *Queen, madam, mistress* and *dame* have all acquired degraded meanings, whereas *prince, king, lord,* and *father* are exalted and applied to God--for even God is thought of as a male and is called Him.

Most pervasive of all is the phenomenon I called the "exclusionary tactic." Here the possibility is simply not considered that the person or or persons being addressed or discussed might be female. A typical example is the loan application that reads: "Full Name. Wife's First Name and Middle Initial. Your Present Employer. Wife's Employer. Your Monthly Salary. Wife's Income (if any)." But the exclusionary tactic employed most tellingly is the constant, careless overuse of the word *man* in its extended senses. When speakers refer to "the leading man in the field," to "the man whose book sells half a million copies," or to "the man they would most like to see as President," they effectively rule out the possibility of a female authority, author, or candidate.

To fight these sexist habits of language, the school dictionary had to avoid gender assumptions that other dictionaries imposed more through custom than necessity. *Youth*, one dictionary said, is "the part of life between childhood and manhood." *Youth*, we said, is "the time of life before one is an adult." *Sex*, itself, we defined straightforwardly, with impersonal examples, avoiding a rival dictionary's use of "the fair, gentle, or weaker sex" and "the sterner or stronger sex" dichotomy.

While we were working our way through the alphabet, other word watchers were already speaking out. In Venice, California, Varda One (formerly Varda Murrell) was analyzing and commenting on a phenomenon she called "Manglish." We could not counter her criticism that dictionaries give less space to *woman* than to *man*. This is not the fault of the dictionary makers, but of a language in which the same word denotes both the human species as a whole and those of its members who are male. In English, contradictory propositions are true: a woman is a man; a woman is not a man.

If a woman is swept off a ship into the water, the cry is "Man overboard!" If she is killed by a hit-and-run driver, the charge is "manslaughter." If she is injured on the job, the coverage is "workmen's compensation." But if she arrives at a threshold marked "Men Only," she knows the admonition is not intended to bar animals or plants or inanimate objects. It is meant for her.

In practice, the sexist assumption that man is a species of males becomes the fact. Erich Fromm certainly seemed to think so when he wrote that man's "vital interests" were "life, food, access to females, etc." Loren Eiseley implied it when he wrote of man that "his back aches, he ruptures easily, his women have difficulties in childbirth...." If these writers had been using *man* in the sense of human species rather than male, they would have written that man's vital interests are life, food, and access to the opposite sex, and that man suffers backaches, ruptures easily, and has difficulties in giving birth.

At every level of achievement and activity--from primitive man to the man of the hour--woman is not taken into account.

Consider the congressman. He is a man of the people. To prove that he's the best man for the job, he takes his case to the man in the street. He is a champion of the workingman. He speaks up for the little man. He has not forgotten the forgotten man. And firmly believes: one man, one vote.

(continued on page 385)

CIVILIZING CIVICS

by Jennifer Macleod and Sandy Silver(wo)man[1]

The government's "smoke-filled rooms" are for men only. That is one of the clear-cut messages we found[2] prevalent in the eight high school civics books (judged "currently popular" by major publishers) we examined. All the following examples are typical of the sexist bias that parents', teachers', and women's groups are seeking to eliminate from the curriculum under the potential authority of Title IX of the 1972 Higher Education Amendments. (Last May, the first textbook complaint under this act was filed against the Kalamazoo, Michigan, public schools.)

In all eight texts, there were only 33 index listings for women, compared to 1,104 for men. Ethel Rosenberg, the convicted, executed spy, and former Senator Margaret Chase Smith tie for prominence with three listings each.

Illustrations are similarly one-sided. In the eight books, the number of pictures showing only men ranged from 53 to 71 percent, whereas just 3 to 9 percent of the pictures portrayed all-women scenes. Women are pictured in traditional sex-stereotyped roles. Two exceptions, however, present female officeholders: Senator Smith is pictured holding a bouquet of roses, and Patsy Mink (D.-Hawaii) is shown throwing snowballs. Checking out the index for Mrs. Ulysses S. Grant, we found only a photo of a mannequin wearing her inaugural gown.

In an introductory unit on "Understanding Democracy," a six-sketch montage shows a man running for office, a man reading about a male candidate, three men discussing politics, a man watching a three-man TV debate, a man cheering a male candidate, and a man casting his vote.

Boys grow up to be "Mr. Average Citizens," and fill out ballots and tax forms. Political leaders are shown as male stick figures in charts. In one book, women get a passing reference when men are displeased with a political issue and "tell their wives, who...discuss [it] over the bridge table." But when women themselves are participating in politics, the context is hardly serious. In one vignette two members of the League of Women Voters observe a council meeting; one sits and knits, the other takes notes "on the back of an envelope."

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[1] Dr. Jennifer Macleod is a research psychologist with her own feminist consulting firm. Sandy Silver(wo)man is Coordinator of the Princeton "Woman's Place" and works as a feminist consultant and as a craftswoman. Both are current officers of the Association of Feminist Consultants.

[2] The study referred to above is: "'You Won't Do': What Textbooks on U.S. Government Teach High School Girls," by Jennifer Macleod and Sandy Silver(wo)man. It may be ordered from KNOW, INC., P.O. Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pa. 15221 ($2.25 fourth-class mail; $3 air mail). This study offers suggestions for action, including Ms. Silver(wo)man's recommendation that "wo/men" (to be read women and men) and "s/he" (to be read she or he) replace the masculine terminology in textbooks, and concludes with an annotated bibliography of studies on the image of women in all types of textbooks.

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One book goes so far as to muse, "Some day perhaps, a Negro, a Jew, a Mormon, even a woman, may have some prospect of being the party [Presidential] nominee." What about Negro, Jewish, and Mormon women? Another text is even more flagrant; its "ideal Presidential candidate" is "an energetic member of the male sex."

The feminist movement receives little or no coverage. One chart, entitled "The Second Bill of Rights," includes the 15th Amendment granting (male) "Negroes" the right to vote. It makes no mention of the 19th Amendment, which, in case your high school textbook didn't tell you, gave *all women* the right to vote.

Consider the policeman or fireman, the postman or milkman, the clergyman or businessman. Whatever else he may be, he is by title a man, and if his employer feels that he is "our kind of man," he may become "our man in the home office" or "our man in Algiers."

From Wordsworth's line "The Child is father of the Man" to the recent New York subway poster "Give a kid a job and help mold a man," a woman is a possibility everyone tends to forget.

When a culture makes adulthood synonymous with manhood, a girl can never reach adulthood at all. There is a clear demarcation between the words *boy* and *man* that does not exist between *girl* and *woman*. A boy greatly increases his stature when he becomes a man, but a girl loses status and bargaining power when she loses her youth. So females are in effect encouraged to cling to girlhood as long as possible. Nor is this reluctance to grow up surprising when one considers the largely negative connotations attached to the word *woman*. To take defeat like a man is to accept it stoically, like a good sport. To take defeat like a woman is usually understood as meaning to weep.

The American Heritage School Dictionary defines sexism as "discrimination by members of one sex against the other, especially by males against females." In order to avoid sexism in language that has come to sound "natural," we devised logical sex-blind substitutes. When referring to the human species, the dictionary employs the term *human beings*, not *man* or *men*.

In our efforts to reduce the superabundance of words referring to the male, we found it was possible to use the word *person* or a more specific substitute instead of *man*. The best man for the job is the best person or candidate; a 12-man jury is a 12-member jury; a real-estate man is a real-estate agent; and machines are used for work formerly done by people or by human beings--not by men.

To avoid unnecessary use of the pronoun *he*, we frequently shifted from the singular to the plural. Instead of saying "insofar as he can, the scientist excludes bias from his thinking," it is easy to change to *they*, *scientists*, and *their*. Plural pronouns desex themselves. The use of *one* is also convenient. A breadwinner, for example, can be "one who supports a family or household by his or her earnings."

Because of our conscious efforts, the nonsexist dictionary is as free of discrimination against either sex as the reformist editors could make it. But as proud as we are of our lexicographers' revolution, writing a nonsexist school dictionary is only the barest beginning. Most schoolbooks still reflect the assumptions of our sexist society. As writers and teachers and parents, we have an obligation now to weigh our words, to examine them, and to use them with greater care. Children of both sexes deserve equal treatment, in life and in language, and we should not offer them anything less.

E SR-L
CD-L TL-L/M

VI.E.3.

"Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

E. Objective: Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to workshop have participants review materials from their institutions in preparation for activity under c. below.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants practice rewriting sentences to eliminate sex- and race-biased language and share in large group. Examples should come from materials that participants would actually use in their own positions: math problems, an orientation packet, college bulletin, a memo from the ~~principal, syllabi, etc.~~

Example:

Old: Each new freshman is encouraged to make an appointment with his adviser upon acceptance at Higher Education College.

New: Each new student is encouraged to make an appointment with the assigned adviser upon acceptance at Higher Education College.

c. Share ideas with other participants.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes in workshop

Resources Needed:

Materials: Printed materials from participants' institutions.
Attached articles: "Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem" (Middleton, 1977); Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks (Scott, Foresman & Company, 1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will cite two examples of how they could change sex- and race-biased language in their institutions' materials.

LIGHT REFRACTIONS:
PONDERING THE PERSONAL PRONOUN PROBLEM[1]

by Thomas H. Middleton

The first time I saw *MS* in print, it was the name of a small literary magazine; it was pronounced "em ess," and it stood for *manuscript*. I remember thinking that it wasn't a good title.

Today, *Ms*. is the name of another magazine; it's pronounced "mizz," it stands for *liberated woman*, and it is a very good title, as well as a very good magazine.

A few years ago, when the problem of finding a word to substitute for *Miss* and *Mrs*. had not yet been solved, I was hoping that almost anything but *Ms*. would be adopted. I didn't like the look of "Ms.," and, as far as I knew, "Miz" up to that time was just a folksy way of saying "Mrs." In fact, I remember a character Bob and Ray invented whose name was something like Miz Pringle: "I'm Miz Pringle." "Yes, Mrs. Pringle." "No, not *Mrs.--Miz*. My name is *Miz*. *Miss* Miz Pringle."

Ms. did emerge as the new title, of course--its establishment as a feminist title secured by its use as the title of our leading feminist magazine. I'm quite reconciled to it.

I think most of us knew that there had to be a new word. It always seemed to me unfair that women were designated "married" or "single" by *Mrs*. and *Miss*, whereas men had their marital status concealed by the all-purpose *Mr*. It seemed to me that *Mrs*. and *Miss* were a bit like an invasion of privacy.

Now that *Ms*. has made it, we're going to have to settle the problem of the masculine pronoun's taking charge when the gender is undetermined, as in "Each member should supply *his* own utensils." Today, a great many people are laboriously conscientious in saying things like "his or her own utensils" or "his/her own utensils." In the past few years, I've received dozens of suggestions for new pronouns to cover both genders. The most recent was from Thomas S. Jackson, a Washington, D.C., lawyer, who says that the use of "him or her," "he or she," and so on, "is both awkward and wasteful." He suggests some new pronouns:

"Suppose we were to use the word *shis* in lieu of 'his or hers'...*shem* for 'him or her'...and *sheme* where we would now use 'he or she'? Consider, from a hypothetical bylaw:

"As of Now: 'In the event of the absence, death, or incapacity of the President, his or her duties shall be performed by the Vice-President; and all of the powers...shall devolve upon him or her, as the case may be....'

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[1] From: Saturday Review of Literature, March 5, 1977, p. 59. © Saturday Review, 1977. All rights reserved.

"New Words: 'In the event of the absence, death, or incapacity of the President, shis duties shall be performed by the Vice-President, and all of the powers...shall devolve upon shem....'"

I agree with Mr. Jackson that "he or she" is awkward. "Him/her" is grotesque. But I hope *shis*, *shem*, and so on won't catch on. I've read suggestions for *heshe*, *hisher*, *himmer*, and several other neologisms, and I don't like any of them.

The fact is that we already have a perfectly good word. All we have to do is relax our prejudice against it. The word is *they*. "Each member should supply their own utensils." "In the event of the absence, death, or incapacity of the President, their duties shall..."

It pings a rather sour note on the educated ear, but it doesn't have to, and to my mind, it beats all the *himmers* and *heshes* and *shems*.

It's worth noting that *they* has fairly good credentials already. The *Oxford English Dictionary* says that *they* is "Often used in reference to a single noun made universal by *every*, *any*, *no*, etc., or applicable to one of either sex (= 'he or she')." The *O.E.D.* then gives instances of this use of *they* from Fielding, Ruskin, Bagehot, and several other reputable types.

I'm conservative enough to have stuck with the conventional *he*, *him*, and *his* so far, eschewing *he or she*, *him or her*, *he/she*, *him/her*, *himmer*, *shis*, and all the rest, including *they* and *them*; but as I've used *he*, *him* and *his*, I've found myself feeling increasingly sexist. So I hereby resolve to try to use *they*, *them* and *their* in defiance of traditional grammar--in the hope of making a start toward drowning out *shis*, *hisher*, *himmer*, and *heshe*--confident that I'm asking for a deluge of letters from outraged grammarians.

When everybody gets out their poison pens, I'll try to withstand their wrath.

There. That wasn't so bad, was it?

GUIDELINES FOR IMPROVING THE IMAGE OF WOMEN IN TEXTBOOKS[1]

Sexism refers to all those attitudes and actions which demean or stereotype individuals or groups because of their sex. These guidelines focus specifically on the elimination of sexism as it relates to women in textbooks.

Whether accidentally or intentionally, women have frequently been treated as inferiors. Textbooks should treat women and men as equals. Textbooks are sexist if they omit the actions and achievements of women, if they demean women by using patronizing language, or if they show women or men only in stereotyped roles with less than the full range of human interests, traits, and capabilities. The actual role of sexism in society, past and present, should not be ignored; and, where appropriate, textbooks can discuss sexism as an important phenomenon without reflecting or reinforcing sexist bias.

GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR TEXT AND ILLUSTRATIONS

The Actions and Achievements of Women Should be Recognized.

The contributions of women to politics, the sciences, the arts, and other fields often considered exclusively masculine should be presented and explored.

The works of female authors are too often omitted from anthologies. When compiling or revising such texts, editors should actively search for material written by women.

Females should be included as often as males in math problems, spelling and vocabulary sentences, discussion questions, test items, and other exercises. Very often the overall tone of a book is sexist because males are more frequently mentioned in exercises or because the exercises present only stereotypes.

Although many factors determine the content of textbooks--authors, permissions, space, time, money, the market, etc.--these limitations should not be used to excuse bias, prejudice, or insensitivity.

Women and Girls Should Be Given the Same Respect as Men and Boys.

Writers, editors, designers, and illustrators should make sure that both male and female readers feel that a publication is directed to them.

Material should be scrutinized carefully in the context of the book as a whole to ensure that contempt for women as a group is not inadvertently being fostered. For example, writers should take care that material about a woman who is stupid, financially inept, a bad driver, a shrewish mother-in-law, a blind follower of male initiative, etc. does not present these qualities as typical of women as a group. Girls and women should not be shown as more fearful of danger, mice, snakes, and insects than boys and men are in similar situations.

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[1] From: Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks, 1974, pp. 1-11. © 1974 Scott, Foresman and Company. Reprinted with permission.

Women and girls should nto be shown as unworthy people when they do not conform to male standards. Males should not be viewed as having a monopoly on ability to judge what is interesting or worthwhile.

Although women are a majority of the American population, in many ways their history has been that of a minority group. Because of past discrimination, the same care must be taken in portraying women as in portraying blacks, Puerto Ricans, Chicanos, American Indians, and other minorities.

Abilities, Traits, Interests, and Activities Should Not Be Assigned on the Basis of Male or Female Stereotypes.

One reason often cited for the overwhelming percentage of selections by or about males in literature and language arts texts is that boys will read only stories about boys, whereas girls will read anything. If females were not depicted as passive, lackluster, sweet but senseless drudges, both boys and girls would find them more interesting. Few boys have rejected *Alice in Wonderland* or *The Wizard of Oz* because the main characters are girls.

Females as well as males possess courage, physical strength, mechanical skills, and the ability to think logically. Males as well as females can be fearful, weak, mechanically inept, and illogical. Females can be rude, intractable, active, or messy. Males can be polite, cooperative, inactive, or neat. Because such characteristics are shared by males and females in reality, textbooks that classify them as "masculine" or "feminine" are misrepresenting reality.

Both men and women should be shown cooking, cleaning, making household repairs, doing laundry, washing the car, and taking care of children. Both men and women should be shown making decisions; participating in sports; writing poetry; working in factories, stores, and offices; playing musical instruments; practicing medicine and law; serving on boards of directors; and making scientific discoveries. However, care must be taken to avoid replacing old stereotypes with new ones. Showing some women in traditional roles, such as housewife or nurse, it not sexist if women are shown in other roles as well.

Children often conform to the standards of their peers because they fear ridicule. If only boys are encouraged to be active and competitive, girls with these inclinations may learn to stifle them. If only girls are encouraged to express openly such emotions as fear, sorrow, and affection, boys may feel reluctant to express these emotions.

Both men and women have much to gain from the elimination of stereotypes. Textbooks which avoid male and female stereotyping will more accurately represent reality, encourage tolerance for individual differences, and allow more freedom for children to discover and express their needs, interests, and abilities.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR AVOIDING SEXIST LANGUAGE

Dealing with the Omission of Women

Terms and titles which use *man* to represent humanity have the effect of excluding women from participation in various human activities. It is usually easy to find some other way of expressing the idea.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
early man	early humans, early men and women
Neanderthal man	Neanderthals, Neanderthal men and women
When man invented the wheel...	When the wheel was invented. When people invented the wheel...
History of the Black Man in America	*History of Black People in America*
Man and His World	*World History*

Occupational terms often ignore the existence of women workers. When a group includes both women and men, use a term or phrase that reflects the actual composition of the group.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
businessmen	businessmen and women, business leaders, operators of small businesses, entrepreneurs, merchants, industrialists[1]
congressmen	members of Congress, congressmen and women
mailmen	letter carriers
repairmen	people who repair..., repairers

A patronizing tone toward women, created by euphemisms, diminutive suffixes, and lack of parallelism, must be avoided. References to a woman's appearance, marital status, and family should not be made unless these items would be noteworthy in referring to a man in the same context.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
the fair sex, the weaker sex	women
the girls in the office	the women in the office

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[1] Since the term *businessman* is often used loosely, it may be helpful to describe the person or persons in more precise occupational terms.

sculptress, suffragette	sculptor, suffragist
the ladies and the men	the women and the men, the ladies and the gentlemen
men (and women)	men and women
man and wife	husband and wife, man and woman, the couple
The works of Hemingway, Steinbeck, and Miss Buck were widely read.	The works of Hemingway, Steinbeck, and Buck were widely read.
The poetic styles of Emily Dickinson and E.E. Cummings are quite different. Emily's style is spare and simple, while Cummings'...	The poetic styles of Emily Dickinson and E.E. Cummings are quite different. Dickinson's style is spare and simple, while Cummings'...
Galileo was the astronomer who discovered the moons of Jupiter. Marie Curie was the beautiful chemist who discovered radium.	Galileo was the astronomer who discovered the moons of Jupiter. Marie Curie was the chemist who discovered radium.
	Galileo was the handsome astronomer who discovered the moons of Jupiter. Marie Curie was the beautiful chemist who discovered radium.
The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, president of American Electronics, Inc., and Florence Greenwood, a pert, blonde grandmother of five.	The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, president of American Electronics, Inc., and Florence Greenwood, credit manager for Bloominghill's department store.
	The candidates were Bryan K. Wilson, silver-haired father of three, and Florence Greenwood, a pert, blonde grandmother of five.

Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotypes

Editors and authors should be cautious when they assign certain activities or roles to people or otherwise differentiate between people purely on the basis of sex. Many such assumptions misrepresent reality and ignore the actual contributions of both sexes to the activity or role. This is not to say that girls should never be pictured playing with dolls or that boys should never be pictured playing with baseballs, but that a more varied picture is also a more realistic one.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
In New England, the typical farm was so small that the owner and his sons could take care of it by themselves.	In New England, the typical farm was so small that the family members could take care of it by themselves.
Children had once learned about life by listening to aunts, uncles, grandparents, and the wise men of their town or neighborhood.	Children had once learned about life by listening to aunts, uncles, grandparents, and the wise people of their town or neighborhood.
Write a paragraph about what you expect to do when you are old enough to have Mr. or Mrs. before your name.	Write a paragraph about what you would like to do when you grow up.
Personal symbols are small, personal objects or possessions that have particular associations for their owners. To a woman, for example, a pressed flower might recall a dance she attended many years ago. A boy might keep a cracked baseball bat because it reminds him of the time he hit the winning home run..	Personal symbols are small, personal objects or possessions that have particular associations for their owners. To a father, for example, an old toy truck might serve as a reminder of a boy who has grown up. A girl might keep a broken tennis racket because it reminds her of a hard-won championship.
	Personal symbols.... To a parent, for example, an old puppet might serve as a reminder of a girl who has grown up. A boy might keep a Halloween costume as a souvenir from his childhood.

When creating spelling, math, and other exercises using fictitious people, authors and editors should make sure that stereotypes are not perpetuated.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
All listened *patiently* to the ladies chatter.	All listened *patiently* while the women talked.
The *ex-stenographer* got a job as as a stewardess with an airline.	The *ex-stenographer* got a degree in accounting.

Words like *spokesperson* and *chairperson*, introduced into the language to prevent the omission of women, should not be applied to women only. When *-person* is used, it refers to either a man or a woman.

EXAMPLE OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE:
Helen Lopez will be the spokesperson for the administration, and Michael Johnson will be the spokesman for the union.	Helen Lopez will be the spokesperson for the administration, and Michael Johnson will be the spokesperson for the union.

Males or females are often chosen to represent "typical" examples, thereby excluding one of the sexes from the reader's thoughts. There are many ways to avoid such stereotyping.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
the common man, the man on the street	ordinary people
the man who pays a property tax	the person who pays a property tax
the typical American...he	typical Americans...they
the teacher...she	the teacher...he or she, teachers...they
the housewife who complains about higher prices	the consumer (homemaker) who complains about higher prices

Wherever possible avoid the use of "he-him" referents. It is often preferable to use a plural sentence with plural pronouns; or substitute *he or she, her or him, him/her*, or a synonym for the noun. It is becoming increasingly common in all but formal usage to mix singular nouns with plural pronouns, as in the sentence "Ed and Sue were present, but neither expressed their views." Often pronouns that needlessly refer to sex can be replaced: "Ed and Sue were present, but neither expressed any views."

Changing Language that Demeans Women

Writers often judge women's achievements by standards different from those by which they judge men's. This is necessary in some professional sports where the same standards do not apply. However, in other areas one's sex does not affect one's competence. Therefore, writers should avoid constructions that place women in a special class. Words like *girl, young woman, woman, lady,* and *gal* often subtly denigrate women's achievements.

They should be used only when their counterparts *boy, young man, man, gentleman,* and *guy* would be appropriate in referring to a male.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
Andrew Wyeth is a fine painter, and Georgia O'Keeffe is a fine woman painter.	Andrew Wyeth and Georgia O'Keeffe are fine painters.
Marie Curie did what few people--men or women--could do.	Marie Curie did what few people could do.
Mary Wells Lawrence is a highly successful lady advertising executive.	Mary Wells Lawrence is a highly successful advertising executive.

Terms such as *woman doctor* or *female executive* are generally unacceptable. Where it is desirable to refer to a person's sex, references should be made with the aid of feminine pronouns: "The doctor walked into the room and put her bag on a chair next to the patient's bed." In some cases, however, it is necessary to refer directly to a person's sex, as in the sentence: "The works of female authors are too often omitted from anthologies."

Avoid constructions implying that women, because they are women, are always dependent on male initiative.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
The ancient Egyptians allowed women considerable control over property.*	Women in ancient Egypt had considerable control over property. Men in ancient Egypt allowed women considerable control over property.**
A slave could not claim his wife or children as his own because the laws did not recognize slave marriages.*	Slaves tried to maintain family relationships, but the laws did not recognize slave marriages.
the farmer and his wife*	a farm couple
a homeowner and his family*	homeowners and their children

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* These examples do not make sense inasmuch as terms like *ancient Egyptians, slave, farmer, homeowner* include women.

** This sentence would be correct only if the author could prove that man in ancient Egypt could choose to grant or deny property rights to women.

Care must be taken to avoid sexist assumptions and stereotypes in teachers' manuals and other teacher aids.

EXAMPLES OF SEXIST LANGUAGE:	POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVES:
Hammers and scissors are good eye-hand coordinators. Hitting the nail instead of the thumb is a triumph for the boys. Cutting out paper dolls and their garments is good for the girls.	Hammers and scissors are good eye-hand coordinators. For a child, hitting the nail instead of the thumb or cutting out a recognizable shape is a triumph.
The boys like action stories, and both boys and girls like animation and comedy. Girls will read stories that boys like, but the boys will not enjoy "girlish" stories.	Most children like action, animation, and comedy in stories. Some children, however, will enjoy lighter or more sentimental types of reading materials.

Revising Sexist Manuscripts

A manuscript may contain so many instances of sexist language that a complete revision is necessary. Following are two such selections along with possible revisions.

SEXIST PASSAGES:	SUGGESTED REVISIONS:
Have one member of the class walk onstage into an environment of his choosing (remembering the difference between showing and doing, be sure he does not *show* you where he is, but rather *does* what he would normally do in that place). When you are sure where he is, join him in the environment. As each member of the class discovers where he is, they in turn may join him onstage.	Imagine yourself in a particular situation. Without telling the class where you are, walk onstage into this environment. Remember the difference between showing and doing and *do* what would normally be done in the place you have chosen. As other class members recognize your environment, they may join you onstage, becoming a part of the same situation.
Born in Manchester, England, in 1922, the daughter of a greengrocer, Mary Barrington spent a typical girlhood doing chores around the house and reading the works of female authors such as Jane Austen and Emily Brontë. Although she was considered attractive by men and had several suitors, she rejected the joys of marriage in order to pursue a literary career. Her sharp, masculine mind attracted the attention of instructors at	Born in Manchester, England, in 1922, the daughter of middle-class parents, Mary Barrington spent a good deal of her childhood reading the works of well-known English authors such as Jane Austen and Emily Brontë. She was intent on pursuing a literary career, and her sharp mind attracted the attention of instructors at Queen's College. In her final year, she won the coveted Queen's Prize for Literature. By 1946, Barrington had

Queen's College, where she won the coveted Queen's Prize for Literature in her final year. By 1946 Miss Barrington had become a nationally known authoress, largely due to her best-selling novel *Crassington,* which dealt with man's alienation --a theme that recurred in the eight novels that followed. Now semi-retired, she can occasionally be seen on the outskirts of Manchester, sporting the good looks and trim figure that belie her age.

become a nationally known author, largely due to her best-selling novel *Crassington,* which dealt with human alienation--a theme that recurred in the eight novels that followed. Now semiretired, she can occasionally be seen on the outskirts of Manchester, where she leads an active life and enjoys good health.

Dealing with Unavoidable Sexism

If, after careful consideration, an author or editor finds it desirable to use selections that contain sexist attitudes, these attitudes should be discussed in accompanying descriptive material or discussion questions. For example, the following questions appeared in one text after the story "The Journal of a Wife-Beater":

1. The Latins have a word for it: *machismo,* that flaunting of masculinity that is expected in certain male-dominated societies. To what degree does the Vasili who begins this journal seem to accept this concept of male superiority?

2. Every time Nitsa hits her husband, she states calmly, "I owed you one...." Is she, as she claims, simply repaying a debt?

3. Try your hand at writing a journal Nitsa might have kept for the days covered in the story.

"Clichés, Witticisms, and Truisms"

VI. **Goal**: INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

E. **Objective**: Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.

4. **Learning Strategy**:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants, in small groups, develop a list of clichés, witticisms, truisms, etc., that are said about men and women.

Examples: "Boys never make passes at girls who wear glasses"
"Boys will be boys"
"Hot to trot"
"Barefoot and pregnant"
"Blacks (males) are studs"

You may wish to have participants also include examples that illustrate the principle of "my virtue is your vice," that is, a characteristic seen as positive or appropriate in a male may be seen as negative or inappropriate in a female (and vice versa).

Examples: "Man's tears are womanish."
"Women's uniforms are mannish."
"Women are feminine." vs. "Men are effeminate."

c. Have leader list examples on board and facilitate a discussion of possible impact of such statements on students' career development and choices.

Discussion question:

1) (Ask this if such clichés haven't appeared on list.) What are some clichés said about racial or minority women and men?
2) How do you feel hearing these words/phrases?
3) How appropriate are they to your work with students?
4) What are some expressions that could replace the ones we have discussed so far?
5) What is the problem with using "girls" for women and "boys" for men over 18?
6) How do they serve to inhibit/facilitate students' career development choices?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem" (Middleton, 1977); (see VI.E.3.)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will develop a list of clichés (to avoid) about men and women.

"Words That Label"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

E. Objective: Identify ways in which the English language excludes or stereotypes males and females.

5. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Brainstorm in large group words or phrases that describe males and females in the following categories:

FOOD		ANIMALS		THINGS	
W	M	W	M	W	M
cupcake honey		vixen chick	buck stud		big wheel

b. Leader will summarize the words on the chart by facilitating a discussion. Be sure to bring up the question of words or phrases that are more stereotypically characteristic of one race than another, for example: "stud" for a black male and "Flower of the South" for a white woman.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Chart or blackboard and chalk
Attached article: "Pondering the Personal Pronoun Problem" (Middleton, 1977); (see VI.E.3.)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will cite words under each heading and discuss their ideas.

"Characteristics of Women and Men"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

F. Objective: Develop new norms or patterns for males and females in a more androgynous or liberated society.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have individuals fill out exercise sheets for their respective sex ("Characteristics Exercise - Women" and "Characteristics Exercise - Men")

c. In small groups, share results.

Discussion questions:

1) Which characteristics appeared on both exercise sheets?
2) Which characteristics would you like to see for men and women, regardless of race?
3) How would you like to describe yourself in terms of characteristics without any sex-role and racial stereotyping restraints?

d. Summarize in a large group.

Minimum Time Required: 50 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handouts: Exercise sheets - "Characteristics Exercise - Women" and "Characteristics Exercise - Men" (Wilson Learning Corporation, n.d.)

Attached articles: "Can a Woman Be Liberated and Be Married Too?" (Rivers, 1975); "We're All Nonconscious Sexists" (Bem and Bem, 1970)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will share results on worksheets and discuss their feelings/findings and will be able to identify five characteristics describing a more androgynous society.

CHARACTERISTICS EXERCISE - MEN

These are the words or phrases that I would use to describe me:

These are the words or phrases that I think women would use to describe men:

CHARACTERISTICS EXERCISE - WOMEN

These are the words or phrases that I would use to describe me:

These are the words or phrases that I think men would use to describe women:

CAN A WOMAN BE LIBERATED AND BE MARRIED, TOO?[1]

by Caryl Rivers

I can remember the exact moment when I was sure I was part of a "liberated" marriage. We were driving along a city street, my husband, Alan, at the wheel and the two kids, Steven, 8, and Alyssa, 5, in the back seat. Alyssa was clutching a beloved doll and tugging at the doll's shopworn dress. The sleeve pulled off. Alyssa looked at the sleeve and then, ignoring me, handed it to my husband and said, "Will you sew it for me, Daddy?"

He didn't sew the dress. He can't sew. I can't sew either. We gave it to his mother. But it was clear that my daughter's question indicated that her mind is free of a model of the universe in which the things men do and the things women do are separate spheres, solitary planets that orbit in their own paths, never touching.

I wonder sometimes if, by the time she grows up, society will be on its way to shattering the old sex-role stereotypes that have made so many men and women so miserable. I see young women today who were reared with one set of assumptions about a woman's place and then confronted by the women's movement with a whole new life style. Since I teach at the college, level, I see a dogged professionalism growing among a great many women students. There is also a growing leeriness about any kind of permanent relationship with men. They prize their new-found freedom and are loath to give it up.

Can a woman be both liberated and married? And a parent? Can a man? I think the answer is yes, although one tends to hear more about the failures than the successes. I know couples who are splitting up from too much change, too fast. I know others who are trying to achieve some kind of balance that suits them both as my husband and I are doing in our liberated marriage.

I guess I would define a "liberated" marriage as one in which there is a rough parity of both the dirt work and the glory. Everyone's solutions are different: ours is a sort of haphazard taking of turns. We have no formal contract about who will do what and when.

For a number of years, my husband worked full time and his income was the major one; recently I've been the one to work full time, with his income being supplemental. A rough breakdown of the work would probably go this way: child care, about equal. He handles food shopping, most lunches, the car pool, trash, the dog and miscellaneous tidying. I am in charge of breakfast and dinner, vacuuming, the wash and the ponytail. We both wash dishes. All these chores shift when necessary.

My husband is totally unthreatened by being spotted with a dish towel in his hand. We have no household help, but we do have a baby sitter, a neighbor who comes over when the kids get home from school.

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I think, with some puzzlement now and then, of a line that Sylvia Plath wrote: "Every woman adores a fascist/the boot in the face, the brute." That rang false to me when I read it; only a masochist could adore a boot in the face.

I consider myself a feminist. I've written about women's issues, and I think I understand the twinges, the force, the maddening inconsistencies of the movement.

One thing I have never really felt is the rage. I have been angry, resentful, just plain mad--but I have never owned the rage, particularly the sort that is unleashed against men. That kind of fury cannot, I suspect, be fired by proxy. It bears directly on something that has happened *to you*. The well of rage is personal, and why, I wondered, was it lacking in me? I grew up in the '50s, that queen of repressive decades under the shadow of Anatomy is Destiny.

I walked through those years, my formative ones, like someone plunging through a storm in a raincoat. I felt the drops, knew the wind--but underneath it all, I stayed warm and dry. Many women of my generation wore hobbles on their souls as crippling as the strips of cloth wrapped around the feet of Chinese girl babies to give them a "delicate" walk.

Matina Horner, the psychologist who is now president of Radcliffe, discovered the hobbles in studies of women's fear of success. For many women, particularly bright ones, to succeed in any intellectual task was also to fail as a woman. It was a psychic tearing that destroyed some women, left some maimed and bitter. Those who broke free did not forget the feel of the hobbles. I never knew them. Many women look on men as despots, oppressors, owners of power, brutes. I cannot. I come from a line of liberated men.

There was a picture, in my parents' house, of my grandfather, my mother's father. He died before I was born. In his house he was the patriarch, and his wife deferred to him. He raised his children to be hardy, self-reliant and ambitious. One of them was a girl.

My mother was talking about him recently, and she said she had just realized how unusual it was that her father raised her like a boy. She was a tomboy, free to race and run and skin her knees. Chores were equally shared; she was not banished to the kitchen while her brothers did "men's work." Grandfather emphasized to her the need to be financially independent, and at one point offered to set her up in business. She chose to go to law school instead.

My mother met my father in law school. Those were the heady, vigorous years of the '30s, and the momentum of the suffrage movement had not yet waned. Women in the '30s breathed freer air than did my contemporaries in the '50s. In the '50s, we were rebels without a cause; it was a dull toothache of a decade.

I had no strong sense, growing up, that my family was much different from others. My mother had known a world my friends' mothers never knew, even though she left the practice of law when I was 5 to join my father at a navy base in Alabama. My father seemed nicer, funnier, than most fathers, but otherwise I did not perceive him as being different. I did notice that he was more deeply involved in my life than other girls' fathers were involved in theirs. Those fathers seemed distant--loving, perhaps, but drifting like a cloud, miles above.

For my father, sports was the thread that bound our activities together. I was a baseball fanatic and spent my 10th year trying to perfect a curve ball.

When I started to play Catholic Youth Organization basketball in the seventh grade, I inherited a ready-made coach: my father. He had once played semipro basketball, and he taught me how to use my hips and elbows so the referee wouldn't see. Thanks to him, I was the only girl in the league who could execute a jump shot.

It did not occur to me that whether or not we beat Blessed Sacrament was not of cosmic concern to everyone. I did notice that there were only a few fathers who went to the girls' games but a lot when the boys played. But our post-game session could not have been more serious if we had been talking about the Knicks or the Celtics instead of the St. Michael's varsity. My father never in any way gave me the impression that what I accomplished was less than it might have been because I was a girl. He was as proud as I of the little cluster of trophies resting on top of the TV set.

Those were the days when women were supposed to be seen but not heard. In an article for the *Ladies Home Journal* in 1954 Marlene Dietrich wrote that women should be like moons, floating about the male sun, shining in reflected glory. (The title of the article was "How to Be Loved.") I tried and inevitably flubbed. I was a lousy moon. I tried to lose prettily at tennis. I never lost that instinct for the jugular, developed in those CYO games. I won arguments with swains about admitting Red China to the U.N. I got good marks. Finally I faced it. My mother and father had not produced a moon; they taught me to shine on my own.

Lacking a proper indoctrination in mores of society, I was bit slow to sense the nuances of it all. I was truly puzzled by the male contempt for women that was so openly expressed around me. It was hatred, as much as lust, that dropped through the words of the guy who would mutter on a corner, "I'd like to ---- you, babe!" There was also a female contempt for men that was muted, indirect but had no less a sting. Women could not be open, even with contempt.

I wonder how many men realize how deep and bitter runs the contempt of women. Barred so often from the arena, where the lights are hot and a man's performance is on display, women have the power of the people in the bleachers. They can criticize, ridicule and demand, safe in the knowledge that the stamina the arena demands will not be asked of them. If a man could listen in while his sex--or he himself--was being discussed by a group of "traditional, subservient" women, it would chill his blood. I have heard such discussions in which men were reduced to buffoons and incompetents by women who were supposed to love them--and hold them in awe.

I was astonished by all this, because contempt was something I had to learn about outside my own home. My mother and my father were equals in their house. Their marriage was not paradise, but it was rooted in the sort of loyalty and trust that can exist only between people of like weight and power. Never, in the entire time I was growing up, did I hear my father put my mother down. Never did I hear her mock him.

It may seem insignificant--or cute--to see pony-tailed moppets out there playing shortstop in Little League. But consider. The women those girls will grow up to be will not be inclined to laugh at men when they fail, to mock them when their best turns out to be not good enough. They will have known what it feels like to take a third strike swinging or to bobble a grounder. Contempt will vanish only when women have a chance to play all the games that are now owned by men.

When Alan and I were married, two years out of grad school, our careers had begun to progress at an even, steady rate. We worked on a small paper in New York State, then went on to jobs reporting politics and urban affairs, he in Baltimore and I in Washington. I must confess that I half-believed his work was more "serious" than mine because he was a man. I was happy, for a time, with the fact that I had been allowed into a man's game.

The real changes for us came with the birth of our first child. Now the responsibility for bringing home the bacon was Alan's. I was determined to continue my career by free-lancing, but it was as if a large rock had been placed on the scale of our professional lives--on his side. I accepted the curtailments on my freedom. I did not get upset when he called at 11 and said he was going to have a drink with the other reporters. I know how one likes to talk shop after a hard day. But I had no one to talk shop with.

I became a hoarder of time. My work was severely rationed. I would rarely ask Alan to give up something he had scheduled to baby-sit while I worked. In my mind I had assigned us places--he was first and I was way behind. I resented this, often. I resented the fact that he simply accepted this as if it were the way of the world. He never said my work was not important. He was always careful to praise what I had done. But I had the feeling that his work was Capital I important and mine was little i important.

When he designed a news show for public television and served as its anchorman and news editor, his working day ran from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. or after. I was home alone night after night with the children. I kept active professionally but it was a great juggling act, calling the baby sitter, making sure Steven had clean underpants and that the meat for dinner was out of the freezer. My husband was exhausted when he came home at night. I knew how important the idea of the show was to him.

At the same time I grew restive about the strain his work put on both of us, how it was beginning to isolate him from the family that was so important to both of us. He would remark, often, that he was missing seeing his daughter grow from an infant into a little girl. This was one of the major factors in his decision to leave television.

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I have to admit, too, that despite the limits on my freedom in the time I spent at home, the lack of economic pressure gave me the chance to experiment, to start off on roads that might lead nowhere. My first book, *Growing Up Catholic in America,* was the result of one of those experiments. I would never have written it if I had been hiking after some politician on the trail of a headline. My husband was able to spend a year writing a book because I could command the kind of income that could keep us afloat.

For years he had worked full time and his income had purchased most of the hamburger. My part-time income bought the extras. This year, when he got a book contract, we pulled the big switch. He is now working at home, writing. Mornings he also takes care of Alyssa before she goes off to kindergarten.

I work full time, teaching at Boston University. Together we have worked out a system somewhat more complicated than the invasion plans for D Day, involving car pools, baby sitters, a grandmother and various auxiliary personnel. My husband is, I think, one of a growing breed of free men who have not been stamped into a mold like a chocolate bunny, who can dry a dish or wipe a runny nose without an attack of castration anxiety. I have known too many men struggling honestly with the new ambitions and hopes of women to think the liberated man is a rare species.

But there are men--a great many, I suppose--who cannot function in anything but the old way, who must see women as satellites to sustain their own egos. I have known women married to such men; when the women began to grow in their own self-estimation, the marriages broke up.

I know other women who are sticking with marriages where there is a great deal of tension about sex roles and division of chores. They stay because they value the relationships and hope things will work out. Sometimes women are afraid to speak out, to say, "This is what I must have." Other times women bark demands, forgetting that a marriage is not the UAW bargaining table. Some marriages ought to fail, for the sanity of both parties. But marriage isn't politics. The formula that works for one person could be deadly for another.

I am optimistic, however, for the future of liberated marriage. I think it makes good sense. It is easier than the old model, because it allows both parties more options. I think it must be tough to be a man, looking ahead year after year to driving a cab or teaching high-school civics or selling insurance, with no prospects of climbing off the treadmill, even for a while. Is that really much better than the plight of the woman who looks ahead and sees an Everest of dirty dishes and unmade beds?

I have the sense that my daughter's generation will be much different from my mother's or mine. I think that young women will be dealing with their expectations earlier and in a much more rational way than most of us did. I think they will be puzzled about the fact that we could think that two people who combine serious work and marriage are a big deal. I hope by then it will have become a matter of course. If that turns out to be true, it will be because of their fathers as well as their mothers.

My husband is always saying to Alyssa, "Girls can be doctors" or "Girls can be pilots" or "Girls can be anything they want." He will transmit to her the message my father (and my mother) beamed to me: You are a person of worth, of value, and it is your right to achieve and grow. My husband accorded me that right freely: I did not have to wrest it from him. If I am a free woman, and I believe I am, it is, in no small measure, because I have lived with--and loved and been nurtured by--free men.

WE'RE ALL NONCONSCIOUS SEXISTS[1]

by Sandra L. and Daryl J. Bem[2]

"For a man...is the image and glory of God: but the woman is the glory of the man. For the man is not of the woman; but the woman of the man. Neither was the man created for the woman; but the woman for the man." (1 Cor. 11:7-9)

Lest you think that this ideology about women is the heritage of Christians only, consider the morning prayer of the Orthodox Jew:

"Blessed art Thou, oh Lord our God, King of the Universe, that I was not born a gentile. Blessed art Thou, oh Lord our God, King of the Universe, that I was not born a slave. Blessed art Thou, oh Lord our God, King of the Universe, that I was not born a woman."

Or the Koran, the sacred text of Islam:

"Men are superior to women on account of the qualities in which God has given them preeminence."

The ideology expressed in these passages is still with us. But it has been obscured by an equalitarian veneer, and the ideology has become nonconscious. That is, we remain unaware of our assumptions because alternative beliefs about women go unimagined. Such is the nature of all nonconscious ideologies. Such is the nature of America's ideology about women. For even those Americans who agree that a black skin should not uniquely qualify its owner for janitorial or domestic service continue to act as if the possession of a uterus uniquely qualifies *its* owner for precisely that.

BARRICADES

Consider, for example, the 1968 rebellion at Columbia University. Students from the Radical Left took over some buildings in the name of equalitarian principles that they accused the university of flouting. But no sooner had they occupied them than the male militants blandly assigned their sisters-in-arms the task of preparing food; they, the menfolk, would plan further strategy. The reply these males received was the reply they deserved, and domestic tasks behind the barricades were desegregated that day.

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[1] From: Psychology Today, November 1970, pp. 22-27. Reprinted by permission of Sandra Bem and Daryl Bem.

[2] Sandra L. Bem received a Ph.D. in developmental psychology from the University of Michigan in 1968. She is an assistant professor of psychology at Carnegie-Mellon University.

Daryl J. Bem received a Ph.D. from the University of Michigan in 1964 and is an associate professor of psychology and industrial administration at Carnegie-Mellon University. They are visiting professors at Stanford University this year.

They were married in 1965 and have developed an equalitarian marriage. Sandra (Lipsitz) uses Daryl's last name because they were ideologically naive when they were married and alternatives did not occur to them. If they had it to do over they would either hyphenate their original names (Lipsitz-Bem or Bem-Lipsitz) or make up a new name.

But these liberated women are not typical, for the nonconscious assumptions about a woman's "natural" talents (or lack of them) are as prevalent among women as among men. Philip Goldberg, a psychologist, showed this by asking female college students to rate a number of professional articles. Half of the women thought that particular articles were written by men (e.g., John T. McKay); the other half thought that the identical articles were written by women (e.g., Joan T. McKay). Each student rated every article for value, competence, persuasiveness, writing style and so forth.

Goldberg found that identical articles received significantly lower ratings when they were attributed to female authors. This was true not only for articles from male-dominated fields like law and city planning, but even for articles from female-dominated fields like dietetics and elementary-school education. Such is the nature of a nonconscious ideology.

VALUES

It is significant that these examples come from the college world, for today's students have challenged the established ways of looking at almost every other issue. Clearly they are finding it more difficult to shed America's sex-role ideology, even though it conflicts with their values just as sharply as other societal inequities that they have been quick to oppose.

The dominant values of today's students are individuality, self-fulfillment and interpersonal equality: each human being, male or female, black or white, is to be encouraged to do his own thing. Stereotypes are to be eliminated. If sensitivity, emotionality and warmth are desirable human qualities, then they are desirable for men as well as women. If independence, assertiveness and serious intellectual commitment are desirable human qualities, then they are desirable for women as well as men.

But America's socialization practices subvert these values; parents rear their children in accord with sex-role stereotypes from the very beginning. Boys are encouraged to be aggressive, competitive and independent; girls are rewarded for being passive and dependent. Susan Goldberg and Michael Lewis recently showed that six-month-old girls were already being touched and spoken to more by their mothers than were infant boys. When they were 13 months old, these same girls were more reluctant than the boys to leave their mothers and they remained closer to them throughout a play period. When the experimenters placed a barrier between mother and child, the girls tended to cry and motion for help; the boys made more active attempts to get around the barrier.

HORMONES?

As children grow older, sex-role training becomes more explicit. Boys, not girls, get chemistry sets and microscopes for Christmas. And all children quickly learn that mommy is proud to be a moron when it comes to math and science; daddy is a little ashamed if he doesn't know all about these things. When a boy returns from school all excited about biology he is almost certain to be encouraged to think of becoming a physician or scientist. A girl with similar enthusiasm is told that she might want to become a nurse so that she can have an interesting job to fall back on in case--God forbid--she ever needs to support herself.

By the ninth grade, 25 per cent of the boys, but only three per cent of the girls, are considering careers in science or engineering. By the time they apply for college, boys score significantly higher on math-aptitude tests, about 60 points higher on the College Board examinations, for example. Feminine hormones? Perhaps, but girls improve their mathematical performance if problems are reworded so that they deal with cooking and gardening--even though the abstract reasoning required for solution remains the same. That's socialization, not hormones.

RELIEF

Other studies show that a girl's long training in passivity and dependence exacts an even higher toll from her motivation to achieve ["Fail," *P.T.*, November 1969], to search for new and independent ways of doing things, to welcome the challenge of novel and unsolved problems. Her sigh of relief is almost audible when she marries and retires from the outside world. In so doing, she joins the majority of American women who become full-time homemakers.

But why does this process violate the values of individuality and self-fulfillment? Not because some people may regard the role of homemaker as inferior to other roles. That is not the point. The point is that our society is managing to consign a large segment of its population to the role of homemaker solely on the basis of sex, just as inexorably as it has in the past consigned the individual with a black skin to the role of janitor or domestic. It is not the quality of the role itself that is at issue here, but the fact that in spite of their unique identities, the majority of America's women end up in the *same* role.

ASSERTIONS

Several arguments are usually advanced to counter the claim that America's homogenization of its women subverts their individuality and self-fulfillment: 1) free will, 2) biology, 3) complementarity.

1) The free-will argument says that a 21-year-old woman is perfectly free to choose whatever role she wants; no one is standing in her way. But this view conveniently overlooks the fact that society has spent 20 years carefully marking the woman's ballot for her, and therefore has nothing to lose in that 21st year by pretending that she casts it for the alternative of her

choice. Society has controlled not her alternatives, but her motivation to choose any but one of those alternatives. The so-called freedom to choose is illusory.

2) The biological argument suggests that there may really be inborn differences between men and women in, say, independence or mathematical ability. Or that there may be biological factors, beyond the fact that women can become pregnant and nurse children, that uniquely dictate that they, but not men, should stay home all day and shun serious outside commitment. Maybe female hormones really are responsible somehow. One difficulty with this argument, of course, is that female hormones would have to be different in the Soviet Union, where one third of the engineers and three fourths of the physicians are women. In the United States, women constitute less than one per cent of the engineers and only seven per cent of the physicians.

3) Many people justify sex-role segregation by arguing that the role of homemaker is not inferior to the role of the professional man; it is "complementary but equal." This argument is usually bolstered by pointing to the joys and importance of taking care of small children. Certainly, both mothers *and* fathers find rewards in childrearing. But this argument becomes insufficient when one considers that the average American woman has her last child at about 26 and lives to 74; thus by the time she is 33 or so, her children all have more important things to do during their daytime hours than to entertain an adult woman who has nothing to do during the second half of her life.

DRUDGE

As for the other "joys" of homemaking, many writers (most notably Betty Friedan) have argued persuasively that the role of homemaker has been glamorized far beyond its intrinsic worth. Almost half of the housewife's time--the equivalent of a man's working day--is spent in preparing meals, cleaning house, laundering, mending, shopping and doing other household tasks. The important point is that this use of time is virtually the same for women with college degrees and for those with less than a grade-school education, for women married to professionals and for women married to blue-collar workers. Talent, education, ability, interests, motivations: all are irrelevant. In our society being female uniquely qualifies an individual for domestic work.

It is true, of course, that the American homemaker has several hours of leisure time per day, and it is here, we are told, that each woman can express her unique identity. Thus, politically interested women join the League of Women Voters; women with humane interests become part-time Gray Ladies; women who love music raise money for the symphony. Protestant women play canasta; Jewish women play mah-jongg; brighter women of all denominations and faculty wives play bridge.

But politically interested *men* serve in legislatures; *men* with humane interests become physicians or clinical psychologists; *men* who love music play in symphony orchestras. In other words, why should a woman's unique identity determine only the periphery of her life rather than its central core?

Again, the important point is not that the role of homemaker is necessarily inferior, but that the woman's unique identity has been rendered irrelevant.

When a baby boy is born, it is difficult to predict what he will be doing 25 years later. We cannot say whether he will be an artist or a doctor or a college professor because he will be permitted to develop and to fulfill his own unique potential, particularly if he is white and middle-class. But if the newborn child is a girl, we can usually predict with confidence how she will be spending her time 25 years later. Her individuality doesn't have to be considered: it is irrelevant.

ROLES

The socialization of the American male has closed off certain options for him too. Men are discouraged from developing desirable traits such as tenderness and sensitivity, just as surely as women are discouraged from being assertive and too bright. Boys are encouraged to be incompetent at cooking and child care just as girls are urged to be incompetent at mathematics and science. The values of individuality and self-fulfillment would require society to rear its children so that some men could emerge with the motivation and the ability to stay home and care for children without being considered peculiar. And if women really are inherently more nurturant than men, this will show up automatically in the final distribution of men and women across the various roles: relatively fewer men will choose to stay at home. The values of individuality and self-fulfillment do not imply that there must be an equal number of males and females in every role; only that men and women must be reared to maximize their own potential regardless of sex.

MOTTO

In 1954 the United States Supreme Court declared that a fraud and hoax lay behind the slogan "separate but equal." It is unlikely that any court--particularly one with nine men on it--will ever do the same for the more subtle motto that successfully keeps the woman in her place: "complementary but equal."

Actually this motto is a recent invention of our modern "liberal" society, part of the equalitarian facade that helps keep our ideology about women nonconscious. Today, many young people are rejecting the traditional view of the male-female relationship, and many now plan to enter marriages like the following:

> Both my wife and I earned Ph.D. degrees in our respective disciplines. I turned down a superior academic post in Oregon and accepted a slightly less desirable position in New York where my wife could obtain a part-time teaching job and do research at one of the several other colleges in the area. Although I would have preferred to live in a suburb, we bought a home near my wife's college so that she could have an office at home where she would be when the children returned from school. Because my wife earns a good salary, she can easily afford to pay a maid to do her major household chores. My wife and I share all other tasks around the house equally. For example, she cooks the meals, but I do the laundry for her and help her with many of her other household tasks.

Without questioning the basic happiness of such a marriage or its suitability for many couples, we can legitimately ask whether such a marriage is really an instance of interpersonal equality. Have all the hidden assumptions about the woman's natural role really been eliminated? Has the traditional ideology really been exorcised? There is a very simple test. If the marriage is truly equalitarian, then its description should retain the same flavor and tone even if the roles of husband and wife are reversed.

> Both my husband and I earned Ph.D. degrees in our respective disciplines. I turned down a superior academic post in Oregon and accepted a slightly less desirable position in New York where my husband could obtain a part-time teaching job and do research at one of the several other colleges in the area. Although I would have preferred to live in a suburb, we bought a home near my husband's college so that he could have an office at home where he would be when the children returned from school. Because my husband earns a good salary, he can easily afford to pay a maid to do his major household chores. My husband and I share all other tasks around the house equally. For example, he cooks the meals, but I do the laundry for him and help him with many of his other household tasks.

HIS AND HERS

It becomes clear that the ideology about the woman's natural role permeates even these "utopian" marriages. The wife may have gained some measure of equality when her career can influence the final place of residence, but why does the *husband's* career determine the initial set of alternatives to be considered? Why is it the wife who automatically seeks the part-time position? Why is she the one to be home with the children? Why is it *her* maid instead of theirs? *Her* laundry? *Her* household tasks?

The important point is not that such marriages are bad or that their basic assumptions of inequality produce unhappy, frustrated women. Quite the contrary. It is the very happiness of such wives that reveals America's smashing success in socializing its women. It is a mark of how well the woman has been kept in her place that such wives often idolize their husbands for "permitting" them to squeeze careers into the interstices of their marriages--so long as their husbands' careers are not unduly inconvenienced. Thus is the white man blessed for exercising his power benignly, while his "natural" right to that power forever remains unquestioned.

Such is the subtlety of a nonconscious ideology.

CHILDREN

A truly equalitarian marriage, on the other hand, would permit both partners to pursue careers or outside commitments that carry equal weight in all important decisions. Here the "problem" of children arises. Many people assume that the woman who wants a role beyond home and family would not care to have children. But of course no one makes this assumption about the man. No one assumes that a father's interest in his career precludes a deep and abiding affection and concern for his children. If a father of small children suddenly lost his wife, no one would expect him to sacrifice his career in order to stay home with them full-time--even if he had an independent source of income. No one would charge him with selfishness or lack of parental feeling if he sought professional care for them during the day. A truly equalitarian marriage abolishes this double standard and extends the same freedom to the mother, while providing the framework for the father to enter equally into the pleasures and responsibilities of child-rearing.

IRONING

A truly equalitarian marriage also embraces a more general division of labor that satisfies the "roommate test." That is, the labor is divided just as it is when two men or two women room together in college. Errands and domestic chores are assigned by preference, agreement, or a coin flip, or given to hired help, or--as is sometimes the case--simply left undone.

Another analogy. Suppose that a white, male college student decided to room with a black, male friend. The typical white student would not blithely assume that his roommate was better suited to handle all domestic chores. Nor should his conscience allow him to do so even in the unlikely event that his roommate would say, "No, that's okay. I like doing housework. I'd be happy to do it." We suspect that the white student would still feel uncomfortable about taking advantage of the fact that his roommate had simply been socialized to be "happy" with such an arrangement. But change this hypothetical black roommate to a female marriage partner and the student's conscience goes to sleep. At best it is tranquilized by the thought that "she is happiest when she is ironing for her loved one." Such is the power of a nonconscious ideology.

Of course, it may well be that she *is* happiest when she is ironing for her loved one.

Such, indeed, is the power of a nonconscious ideology!

"Society's Influence on Sex Roles"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

F. Objective: Develop new norms or patterns for males and females in a more androgynous or liberated society.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Videotape No. 9, "Why Change?" might also be used as a resource in this strategy. See X.A.1.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants complete worksheet ("Describe Yourself") in attached article, "Society's Influence on Sex-Role Development."

c. Discuss, in a large group, what participants learned about themselves as a result of completing the test. Suggested questions are:

1) Do you see yourself as masculine or feminine or a combination?
2) What implications does androgyny have for your future career development (including life-style considerations)?
3) How would you like to change the way you scored on the test (if you want to consider changing)?
4) What are the implications for your students?
5) What societal changes (including your institution) would be needed?

d. The leader or resource person could then share findings reported by Sandra Bem in her article, "Beyond androgyny: Some presumptuous prescriptions for a liberated sexual identity" (1977) or "Androgyny vs. the tight little lives of fluffy women and chesty men" (1975).

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Society's Influence on Sex-Role Development" (Birk, 1976)
Reference: Bem (1975, 1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete, score, and discuss implications of androgyny test for themselves.

*SOCIETY'S INFLUENCE ON SEX-ROLE DEVELOPMENT**

Before we begin the discussion on the development of sex roles, we would like you to complete the following rating scale. The scale measures the extent to which you think certain characteristics are true of you. We will then be able to use that information in the discussion that follows.

On the following page, you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true these various characteristics are to you. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Example: Sly

Mark "1" if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "2" if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "3" if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "4" if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "5" if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "6" if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark "7" if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

---

* Birk, J.M. Providing life/career planning for women and girls. Washington, D.C.: National Consortium on Competency-Based Staff Development, in cooperation with American Institutes for Research, 1976.

DESCRIBE YOURSELF

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE	USUALLY NOT TRUE	SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE	OCCASIONALLY TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	USUALLY TRUE	ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE

Self-reliant ___
Yielding ___
Helpful ___
Defends own beliefs ___
Cheerful ___
Moody ___
Independent ___
Shy ___
Conscientious ___
Athletic ___
Affectionate ___
Theatrical ___
Assertive ___
Flatterable ___
Happy ___
Strong personality ___
Loyal ___
Unpredictable ___
Forceful ___
Feminine ___
Reliable ___

Analytical ___
Sympathetic ___
Jealous ___
Has leadership abilities ___
Sensitive to the needs of others ___
Truthful ___
Willing to take risks ___
Understanding ___
Secretive ___
Makes decisions easily ___
Compassionate ___
Sincere ___
Self-sufficient ___
Eager to soothe hurt feelings ___
Conceited ___
Dominant ___
Soft-spoken ___
Likable ___

Masculine ___
Warm ___
Solemn ___
Willing to take a stand ___
Tender ___
Friendly ___
Aggressive ___
Gullible ___
Inefficient ___
Acts as a leader ___
Childlike ___
Adaptable ___
Individualistic ___
Does not use harsh language ___
Unsystematic ___
Competitive ___
Loves children ___
Tactful ___
Ambitious ___
Gentle ___
Conventional ___

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

1. Starting with the first descriptor, "self-reliant," and continuing to the last, "conventional," precede each descriptor with either an M (standing for masculine), an F (standing for feminine) or an N (standing for neuter). Continue in that fashion, that is, M, F, N, M, F, N...

2. For all adjectives that are masculine (that is, "self-reliant" and every third adjective thereafter), add your rating, then divide by 20 to get the average masculine score.

3. For the feminine adjectives (that is, "yielding" and every third adjective thereafter), add your ratings, then divide by 20 to get the average feminine score.

4. Subtract the mean masculine score from the mean feminine score. The difference is your androgyny score. Feminine Score - Masculine Score = Androgyny.

5. Minus scores are representative of masculine-typed persons and plus scores are representative of feminine-typed persons. Scores within the range of -1 to +1 are representative of androgynous types.

ANDROGYNY - AN EXPLANATION

The rating scale you just completed and scored is the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974). It is a measure of the construct Androgyny. By looking at ourselves in terms of how androgynous we are or are not, we are able to see the extent that our behaviors and personality characteristics are, according to society's stereotypes, either "feminine" or "masculine."

What does it mean to be androgynous? If you are androgynous, then you are someone who has access to the full range of behavioral and emotional responses, and who freely can choose a response based on its appropriateness to the situation. An individual who is masculine-typed is mainly characterized by traits which society has labeled "masculine." Such a person would find it difficult to display a "feminine" trait, such as compassion, even when the situation would appropriately elicit compassion. Likewise, a person who is feminine-typed would find it difficult to demonstrate a "masculine" trait, such as assertiveness, even when the situation would appropriately elicit that response. The androgynous person, on the other hand, is not typed one way or the other. The androgynous person possesses the full range of potential qualities, from masculine to feminine. Such a person, then, can respond to a situation based on what is appropriate, and is not limited by one sex-typed set of characteristics or the other.

Society has not made it easy for individuals to develop a broad range of characteristics. On the contrary, if you are a woman you have been reinforced for developing the "feminine" characteristics, and if you are a man you have been reinforced throughout life for showing the "masculine" traits. The advantages of being androgynous are clear:

1) If you are a woman, you are comfortable with your female identity; you possess such characteristics as tenderness, affection and nurturance, but you also possess and are able to demonstrate assertiveness, dominance and other "masculine" traits when the situation calls for them.

2) If you are a man, you are comfortable with being a man; you possess the characteristics that are socially reinforcing for men, such as leadership, competitiveness, and independence, but you are also comfortable with showing warmth, dependence and other "feminine" traits when the situation calls for them.

In relationship to careers, the individual who possesses a broad range of personality characteristics is most likely to consider a wide array of careers when faced with career decision making. Since the androgynous person isn't restricted to behaviors and roles traditional for his or her sex, career decisions would most likely be made on the basis of interest, skills, values, and potential rather than on stereotypic expectations. (See Bem, 1975, for a more complete discussion of the concept of androgyny).

"Physical Continuum"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

F. Objective: Develop new norms or patterns for males and females in a more androgynous or liberated society.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

This strategy asks participants to assess where they are in terms of their beliefs and their behaviors regarding sex roles. The exercise can be an extremely powerful one for ending BORN FREE experiences with participants. It provides a sense of closure for participants. It could, however, be used at both the beginning and ending of a workshop or course to see whether or not people have changed their beliefs and/or behaviors as a result of their experience.

The exercise is in two parts, first asking people to assess where they are in terms of their beliefs about sex roles and, second, asking them to assess where they are in terms of their behaviors related to sex roles. As a leader, it is important to clearly define the end points for the continuum for participants by giving examples, if necessary.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Describe an imaginary line which stretches from one corner of the room to the other and ask participants to place themselves on a point of the line in terms of their beliefs about sex roles. One end point could be described as "completely stereotyped" (i.e., People here believe in traditional sex roles for women and men). The other end point could be described as "completely non-stereotyped" (i.e., People here believe that women and men, regardless of race, should be free of sex roles in all areas of their life).

Then do the same for a continuum related to people's actual behaviors. One end point would be for people who see their behavior as completely sex-role stereotyped and the other end point as completely non-stereotyped. In most cases, people's behaviors will be lagging behind their beliefs.

Leader may wish to add the following to the above continuums: Ask participants to stand on the line at the points where:

1) they were five years ago.
2) they were before BORN FREE experiences.
3) they are after BORN FREE experiences.
4) they wish the world would be in the future.

c. Form small groups and have people discuss why they stood and moved where they did. Each group should pick a reporter to report to large group.

d. Report outcomes of discussion to large group. During discussion that follows, try to focus on attitudes about career, sex-role stereotyping, and the implications of their attitudes for career options. Ask participants to keep in perspective differences among racial groups and economic classes.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed: None

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will discuss their own personal attitudes and those of others by completing the following paragraph:

"I realized that..."

Participants will focus on career-related sex bias in their paragraph. Each participant will list three norms for a more androgynous society.

E SR-H
CD-L TL-H

VI.F.4.

"The Androgynous Personality"

VI. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL INCREASE AWARENESS OF BOTH THE PROCESS AND OUTCOMES OF SEX-ROLE SOCIALIZATION WHICH HAVE AFFECTED STUDENTS.

F. Objective: Develop new norms or patterns for males and females in a more androgynous or liberated society.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

Some of the sex-role literature suggests that there are three stages of sex-role development: 1) undifferentiated, 2) polarized, and 3) sex-role transcendent. The polarized masculine/feminine is probably the stage to which most of us are exposed through our socialization. Recently the concept of androgyny, which probably could be categorized between polarization and transcendence, has been gaining acceptance. It assumes that each person has both masculine and feminine characteristics within her/him which allow for fuller personal development and a wider range of behaviors. Sex-role transcenders refuse to be bound by tradition or prescribed roles and engage in behaviors based on their own uniqueness, talents, and preferences. It is suggested that both sex-role transcenders and androgynous people have the opportunity to be free to experience fuller lives. Discussion of these sex-role stages can help clarify questions of sex roles and enhance understanding of gender identity and sex-role identity. Leader should read Bem (1975) before leading this strategy. Any person who prefers not to participate has the right to do so.

Instructions:

a. Explain the concept of androgyny as defined by Bem.

b. Have participants draw on a sheet of paper or a 4 x 6 card symbols depicting some part or characteristic of their own personality often associated with the other sex. For example, a woman with high achievement needs might picture a ladder showing how she has a lot of achievement motivation and drive typically associated with men. Participants then pin the card on their clothing where others can readily see it.

c. Have participants engage in free milling around the room, sharing their own androgynous traits with as many individuals (one at a time) as possible, and also their feelings about it. If preferred, participants may join in groups of three or four to do their sharing.

d. Discuss in large groups what participants learned and felt during the activity. (The leader may wish to refer to questions in IV.C.2. for discussion.)

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required:
5 minutes to draw symbol
20 minutes to mill and share
5 minutes to process

Resources Needed:

Materials: 4 x 6 cards, magic markers, pins
References: Bem (1975); Rebecca, Hefner, & Oleshansky (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list two awarenesses they gained from this strategy.

Goal VII

PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Explain the relationship between expectations for success, sex-role stereotypes, and achievements, distinguishing between patterns for men and women.

   1. Career Inhibitors: Informal Institutional Practices
   2. Great and Not-So-Great Expectations

B. List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.

   1. The Pressure Cooker of Expectations
   2. Role Conflicts
   3. BORN FREE: A World of Options (Videotape)
   4. Role Models in Nontraditional Careers
   5. Women and Men in Nontraditional Careers: A Fantasy Exercise

C. Drawing on personal experience as a student adviser, teacher, or administrator, explain the ratio of males and females in your field, considering those factors that tend to encourage women and men students to enroll in certain courses and to avoid others.

   1. Institutional Assessment
   2. Your Support System
   3. Schools as Influencers (Videotape)
   4. Colleges as Influencers (Videotape)

D. Recognizing that currently boys exhibit more interest in mathematics and science, whereas girls exhibit more interest in language and literature, demonstrate the ways in which these early socialization patterns affect the selection of majors by undergraduate male and female students.

   1. Socializing Career Interests
   2. Influences on Program Selection

E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

VII.A.1.

"Career Inhibitors: Informal Institutional Practices"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Explain the relationship between expectations for success, sex-role stereotypes, and achievements, distinguishing between patterns for men and women.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants divide into small, mixed-sex groups. Pass out copies of "Sentence Completion Blank" worksheet and ask each group to work with one set of open-ended cues, a., b., c., or d. Participants may wish to add to the cues, for example: "Black women are..." or "Native American men should..."

c. A recorder from each group then shares the results with the entire group. The group leader should place each set of results on separate sheets of newsprint for review for the entire group.

d. Return to small groups (one member serving as a recorder), and have participants discuss informal practices in her/his own setting that discourage career development in women or men in nontraditional fields (math/science/ literature/communications competencies; number of men/women currently enrolled in such programs; attitudes of instructors, supportive or nonsupportive). Ask participants to pay attention to whether or not there are differences depending on race or economic class.

e. Following this discussion, have large group reassemble. Have recorder from each group report on the informal practices discussed in her/his group.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 20 minutes for sentence completion.
20 minutes for informal practices discussion
5 minutes for wrap-up

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Sentence Completion Blank" worksheet

Attached articles: "What Inhibits Achievement and Career Motivation in Women?" (Farmer, 1976); "Psychological Factors Inhibiting Women's Occupational Aspirations and Vocational Choices" (DiSabatino, 1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Sentence completion worksheets will be completed and discussed, and informal practices will be generated and reported back to large group.

SENTENCE COMPLETION BLANK

Directions:

Complete and share only what you are comfortable sharing in small groups. Add any qualifying word you wish, for example: "Black women are ..." or "Native American men should..."

a. Men are

Women are

b. Men are not

Women are not

c. Men should

Women should

d. Men shouldn't

Women shouldn't

If women were more ______________________________, then they could ________

____

If men were more ______________________________, then they could ________

____

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WHAT INHIBITS ACHIEVEMENT AND CAREER MOTIVATION IN WOMEN?[1]

by Helen S. Farmer
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It has long been known that women do not achieve or contribute as much as men in the fields of science, the humanities, and the arts (Astin, 1973; Commission on the Status of Women, 1970; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Rossi & Calderwood, 1973) in spite of the fact that they represent over 40% of the professional labor force today (Blitz, 1974) and have represented at least 30% of the professionals since 1890. Fewer women proportionally rise to the top of their chosen profession, business or trade. Although women represented 40% of the professional and technical workers in 1974, they represented less than 20% of the managers and administrators that year (U.S. Department of Labor, 1974) and a majority of these women were elementary school teachers.

The dilemma confronted is that women, found to be equally intelligent as men (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974), do not contribute to society through their work in proportion to their participation. Why do women scientists, artists, writers, educators, and social scientists not contribute as much as men? What inhibits their achievement motivation and productivity?

The growth of the feminist movement in the 1960's and its continuing expansion in the 1970's has led to a variety of intervention strategies aimed at accelerating equal opportunity for all women (Farmer & Backer, 1975). Some of the strategies include legislation, assertiveness training, consciousness raising, multiple role planning, women's studies programs, and encouragement to women to enter and train in the nontraditional professions (e.g., engineering, physics, law and medicine). These intervention strategies, however, typically are provided in a "shotgun" fashion rather than based on careful examination of the factors contributing to women's unequal status. The selective review of literature on achievement and career motivation that follows provides some insight into the factors inhibiting such motivation in women. Having identified the relevant factors, it seems more likely that optimal interventions can be formulated, as well as most effectively applied.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

In their review of 58 studies on achievement motivation in women, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) reported a series of studies indicating that women have lower levels of academic self-confidence and are less competitive compared with men. They noted that this difference between the sexes in self-confidence does not appear usually in elementary or high school students, but appears first in college. It might be speculated that since college often precipitates a marriage-career conflict (Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964), the lowered self-confidence and achievement motivation noted in college women by Drew and Patterson (1974) is thus fostered.

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[1] From: Counseling Psychologist, 6 (2) (1976), pp. 12-15. Reprinted by permission of The Counseling Psychologist.

Astin (1973) found that girls perform as well as boys in math, science and tests of spatial relationships up to about age 10; thereafter their performance becomes increasingly poorer. She suggested that this effect is due, at least in part, to differential reinforcement on the part of parents and teachers.

The model of achievement motivation developed by Atkinson and Raynor (1974) and McClelland (1971) identified the following factors as critical for high achievement motivation: an internal standard of excellence, independence, persistence, preference for tasks of intermediate difficulty, high academic performance, and clearly defined goals. Bardwick (1971) suggested that this is a male model of achievement motivation, based on her separate examinations of achievement motivation for boys and girls. Alper (1974) refers to achievement motivation in women as the "now-you-see-it-now-you-don't" phenomenon. Her recent view of achievement motivation in women does not support Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) conclusions that differences between the sexes do not become significant until women reach college. Rather than clear cut differences between the sexes during the elementary and high school years, Alper points to the illusive quality of female achievement motivation. Bardwick (1971) refers to the differences as one of "ambivalence" for women, created by their pull toward both achievement and affiliation with the opposite sex, and their "fear" that success in one rules out success in the other.

Maehr (1974) recently proposed that situational variables may play a critical role in achievement motivation as it manifests itself within different racial and cultural groups. Katz (1973), for example, found that women have less "fear of success" when responding to cues which presented women in socially sanctioned achievement situations (e.g., Anne, a medical student in a medical class that is half female) than when women were presented in nontraditional roles (e.g., Anne, the only female in her medical class). Providing a contextual change in the stimulus cue had a dramatic effect on these women's fear of success. Monohan, Kuhn, and Shaver (1974) found coeducational versus noncoeducational school setting had a significant effect on the level of fear of success in high school girls: high school girls in coeducational schools had less measured fear of success than comparable girls in noncoeducational schools.

Alper (1974) has been studying the relationship of sex-role orientation to achievement motivation in women for more than a decade, and has found that women with traditional female orientations, attitudes and beliefs, score lower on achievement motivation measures than women with nontraditional female orientations. Entwisle and Greenberger (1972) found that high IQ girls generally held more liberal views than average and low IQ girls, and that high IQ girls from blue collar homes were the most liberal about women's roles.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND "FEAR OF SUCCESS"

Horner (1968) researched the avoidance of achievement in women which she calls "fear of success," and documented the changing strength of this "fear" when competitive factors are changed. For most women, Horner found that they had less fear of success when competing against themselves, than when they were competing with other students. The opposite was true for most males.

Tomlinson-Keasey (1974) found that married women students with children had significantly lower fear of success than unmarried coeds. We might infer that these women had less fear of academic success, having found a husband who accepted their academic aspiration. The married women were also a more select group and were highly motivated to return to study.

Katz (1973) made adaptations in Horner's basic research design by providing additional prompting cues to her subjects. She required two groups of subjects, undergraudates in a small Western College, to respond to the same cues with the following additions: (a) All Anne's classmates in medical school are men. "After first term finals, Anne finds herself at the top of her class." (Quotes indicate Horner's cues.); (b) Half of Anne's classmates in medical school are women. "After first term finals, Anne finds herself at the top of her class." Subjects in the second condition, both men and women, had significantly less measured fear of success themes than those in the first condition. Katz concluded that the second cue provided the necessary social sanction for women to be comfortable with Anne's success in medical school.

Lipman-Blumen (1972) proposed an operational definition of the lower aspiration level of women through her description of a vicarious achievement ethic, namely, many women choose indirect achievement satisfaction through the successes of important male persons in their lives (father, brother, boyfriend, husband, boss) rather than directly through their own successes. An example might be a woman saying she doesn't want to be the President (or Director, etc.) but just wants to work with him. The vicarious achievement motive suits well the woman who wants to avoid primary responsibility on the job, but at the same time benefit from the successes of her boss through reflected glory. From a sample of married college females (N = 643), Lipman-Blumen (1972) found only 17% free of the vicarious achievement motive. Twelve percent of this subgroup were pursuing a Ph.D., whereas none of those measuring high on vicarious achievement motivation were pursuing Ph.D.'s.

Bettleheim (1969) suggested that education is an enhancement for boys, whereas for girls it is a form of insurance in case they don't make it in marriage; therefore, he assumed that women who enter "direct achievement" occupations, such as law or medicine, experience a loss of femininity. Similarly, men who enter "vicarious achievement roles" such as nurse, elementary school teacher or librarian, experience a loss of masculinity.

Harmon (1972) found it harder to predict the stability of career choice for college women than for college men. She found that women who aspired to high level careers in their freshman year often changed their choices to less demanding careers by the time they were college seniors. Harmon hypothesized that lack of reinforcement for their high aspirations resulted in lowered career aspiration level for these women. Relatedly, Hawley (1972) found that college women's choice of a traditional or nontraditional career was related, among other things, to whether the attitudes of significant men toward working women were positive or negative.

Tomlinson-Keasey (1974) found that married (older) coeds, compared to unmarried coeds, had higher levels of achievement motivation as well as lower "fear of success" scores. Research on the contribution of marriage plans to achievement motivation is being conducted currently by Drew and Patterson (1974).

CAREER MOTIVATION

There are developmental and situational differences in the vocational choice process for girls compared with boys. Following the Terman and Miles classic study, Tyler (1964) studied the development of sex differences in play and school and found that whereas girls appear to be precocious in social development, they tend to lag behind boys in career development, especially at the college level. Similarly, other researchers (Campbell, 1974; Harmon, 1975) have suggested that women's vocational interests may crystallize somewhat later than men's and may be organized in a different way. Strong's (1955) earlier studies support the view that men and women in the same professions have significantly different career interests.

Ginzberg and his associates (1966) documented another important difference in the career choice process for women. He noted that girls cannot realistically plan on a career until they know what kind of man they will marry (provided that they plan to marry). Their financial status and freedom to continue their education will be determined partially by the husband's career and his attitudes toward educated and working women. In addition, the number of children that a woman plans for or bears will affect the pattern of her career life. She may elect an interrupted career pattern or a parallel track system as suggested by Super (1969). Ginzberg postulated that this greater uncertainty in planning is probably the major difference between the sexes in their career development.

An interesting finding by Astin (1973) was that women who have high career motivation and who pursue graduate level education often show an exceptional aptitude for mathematics early in their education. In fact, mathematics aptitude was found to be the best predictor of career motivation in Astin's sample of 5000 women who were five years out of high school. In earlier research Astin (1969) found that women doctorates (N = 1547) were as highly motivated to work as men, and that over 90% of the women graduating with Ph.D.'s in 1957 were still in the labor force eight years later. Such findings suggest that women who seek graduate level degrees are not intellectual dilettantes, but serious professionals.

Many women consider, and have the right to choose, a stable homemaking career. At the present time, about 50% of all women choose not to work outside the home (U.S. Department of Labor, 1974). Exposure to multiple role planning early in the education of those girls and women who will choose not to work outside the home may facilitate their right to choose *freely*, having been informed of all the options.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Achievement and career motivation in girls differs from that of boys as a result of several as yet poorly defined factors. Some of these factors have been identified in the research literature: (a) *Reduction in academic self-confidence* for girls in college (Tomlinson-Keasey, 1974); (b) *Fear of success* in college and high school women, found in varying degrees depending on the perceived social sanction given to women's careers (Horner, Tresemer, Berens, & Watson, 1973; Katz, 1973; Monohan et al., 1974); (c) *Vicarious* *achievement motivation* found to contribute to women's contentment with traditional career roles, such as secretary, elementary school teacher and nurse (Lipman-Blumen, 1972); (d) *Home-career conflict* found in both college women and working women to inhibit career motivation (Morgan, 1962; Farmer & Bohn, 1970); (e) *Myths* about women and the world of work and their possible influence on the career exploration process (Birk & Tanney, 1973); (f) Studies of academic motivation have found *risk taking behavior* lower in girls than in boys (see review by Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974); and (g) A seventh factor, *sex-role orientation*, was also found to affect achievement motivation (Alper, 1974; Entwisle & Greenberger, 1972).

Previous studies typically have looked at the effect of one of these variables, and have not controlled for the possible effect of the others on motivation. A current study of the author examines the potency of the above variables to predict both achievement motivation and career motivation in samples of high school students, college undergraduates, and women returning to higher education after an absence of at least five years.

Researchers are encouraged to undertake or continue studies aimed at a better understanding of career and achievement motivation in girls and women in terms of what increases and what decreases it. The degree of interdependence of career and achievement motivation in different subcultures could be studied. Crosscultural studies of motivation patterns in women, in ethnic and geographic subgroups, would be valuable. Comparative studies of the effect on motivation of various legal, economic and social changes could potentially influence social reform as well as educational and counseling practice. Researchers might also look at coeducational interventions in the schools and elsewhere to determine how motivational patterns in both sexes are tied to changing attitudes, values and experiences.

Although research findings to date on the career and achievement motivation patterns of women are not sufficient to provide highly specific direction to counseling practice, they are sufficient to suggest some general directions for counselors interested in increasing career motivation in women. Research to increase the career motivation of girls and women points to the powerful influence of exposing them to nontraditional role models (Katz, 1973). In a recent study Plost (1974) found that presenting a female computer programmer in a career film significantly increased the career motivation of eighth grade girls for that career compared to the interest they expressed when presented with the same film using a male model. Role models may be presented directly by inviting women in nontraditional careers to visit with students, or by encouraging students to find parttime work in settings where they would interact with women in nontraditional career roles. Role models also may be presented indirectly through film, printed materials and discussion. Women from different subcultures, such as black women who reportedly have minimal fear of success and home-career conflict (Gump & Rivers, 1975), may also be helpful role models for girls and women experiencing motivational conflicts.

Counselors are encouraged to be active in parent and teacher inservice education aimed at reducing sex role stereotypic behavior. Teachers could be motivated to encourage girls to take science, shop and math when interest and ability indicate the appropriateness of such a consideration. Parents could be motivated to encourage career and achievement aspirations in their daughters and to discourage vicarious achievement patterns. Counselors can begin to recognize biased occupational and career information (Birk, Cooper & Tanney, 1973, 1975) and develop a library of nonbiased materials. The U.S. Department of Labor's Women's Bureau is a rich source of many unbiased and free publications on women and careers.

When girls and women begin to feel that it is all right to be assertive and independent, it is more likely that they will choose careers that require these attributes and that they will begin to contribute to society at levels more commensurate with their talents and potential. Counselors can encourage girls and women, boys and men to adopt flexible (androgynous) attitudes toward their sex roles, in opposition to the view that some behaviors and careers are feminine and others are masculine. This is a challenge, but one that must be met if society is to benefit fully from the resource potential of 51% of its population.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS INHIBITING WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND VOCATIONAL CHOICES: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING[1]

by Marie DiSabatino

In her view of the literature concerning attitudinal barriers to occupational aspirations in women, O'Leary (1974) presented evidence suggesting that men in positions of authority, who make most of the promotional decisions affecting women, frequently have sex-role stereotypical attitudes toward competency that inhibit women's occupational advancement. Even if these external factors could be counteracted by laws requiring different hiring practices and promotional decisions, the resulting freedom would be illusory. There would remain barriers to occupational advancement for women that are even more detrimental to women and to their vocational aspirations. Internal factors inhibit women's expression of the kinds of achievement-directed behavior necessary to ensure promotions into managerial positions, nontraditional occupations, and other positions requiring attributes and qualities presently defined by society as "male." Some of these internal psychological factors are fear of failure, low self-esteem, role conflict, and the perceived consequences and incentives for engaging in achievement-related behaviors.

FEAR OF FAILURE

Burnstein (1963) measured the effects of fear of failure on vocational aspirations. From a list of 40 occupations, men were asked (a) which occupation was the nearest one they intended to strive for, (b) what satisfaction could be expected from each occupation listed, (c) which were realistically attainable, and (d) which they would settle for if the stress of occupational achievement could be avoided. As fear of failure increased, (a) the prestige of aspired-to occupations decreased, (b) the willingness to settle for less satisfying and less prestigious occupations increased, and (c) the tendency to avoid occupational stress increased. Since Burnstein used a sample of college males, the results cannot be automatically generalized to females.

The fear of failure in women may be rooted in the socialization process. Men are taught very early to develop competence and skills to achieve mastery of the environment (Komarovsky, 1950); women are taught to control their environment by dependence on others, through affiliation (Hoffman, 1974). Thus, it is not surprising that a significant correlation is observed between fear of failure in childhood and adulthood among women but not among men (Kagan & Moss, 1962).

SELF-ESTEEM

If women generally suffer from lack of confidence and self-esteem, they may be more vulnerable to failure fears. Feather (1969) tested the attribution of responsibility and valence of success and failure in relation to initial confidence and performance on an anagrams task. Before the participants began the task, they rated their confidence in their ability to pass. After they completed the task, they rated the degree to which they felt their performance was due to ability (internal attribution) or luck (external attribution) and the degree of satisfaction with their performance. Unexpected success was more often attributed to good luck than was expected success and was associated with greater satisfaction. Performance was positively related to initial confidence. Females were lower in initial confidence, higher in external attribution, and higher in feelings of inadequacy than were males. Thus, even if a woman performs well, she is likely to consider it luck rather than ability. The results of a study by Deaux and Emswiller (1973) also indicated that, when evaluating successful performance on sex-linked tasks, both men and women attributed a male's success to skill and intelligence but considered a successful performance by a female lucky.

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[1] From: The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1976, 25 (1), 43-49. Permission to reprint granted by A.P.G.A.

The results of these studies suggest that, because of their different socialization, women develop less confidence in their skills, less independence, and lower self-esteem than do men. Even if she performs well on a task, a woman is more likely to attribute her success to luck rather than skill or intelligence. Because she lacks confidence and self-esteem, a woman is more vulnerable than a man to fear of failure. Consequently, even when occupations are technically open to her, she is likely to aspire to less prestigious and satisfying occupations than she would if she were not inhibited by these psychological factors.

SEX-ROLE CONFLICTS

Women's vocational decisions are limited in another way by their adherence to stereotypically feminine role concepts and their related self-concepts. Putnam and Hansen (1972) studied the relationship of the feminine role and self-concepts to vocational maturity and found that self-concept was significantly associated with vocational maturity. These findings support Super's (1951) theory of vocational maturity and indicate that his theory applies to females as well as males. Further, the more liberal the woman perceived her role to be, the higher was her level of vocational maturity. Girls tend to be vocationally immature in comparison to their male counterparts and to have a lower than average self-concept. Thus, if women have low self-concepts because of low estimations of their own competence or other factors, they are more likely to be vocationally immature.

Women's career choices, then, are basically limited because of their poor self-concepts. They have less confidence and self-esteem because they see themselves as less competent. What is the origin of this belief? We have considered Hoffman's (1972) interpretation based on their socialization; Baruck (1972) examined another possible source. She tested two hypotheses concerning women's tendencies to devalue feminine competence. The prejudice hypothesis states that devaluations are the result of outgroup self-prejudice. Predictions based on this interpretation were: (a) The tendency to devalue feminine competence is associated with a negative attitude toward career women and the dual role pattern, and (b) mothers of devaluers are negative and conflicted in their own attitudes and experiences with respect to the dual role pattern.

The competence model hypothesis states that devaluations are products of a traditional, feminine sex-role standard learned from a nonworking mother. The competence model predicts that the tendency to devalue is associated with a nonworking mother. With respect to women who did devalue feminine professional competence, no support was found for the prejudice hypothesis. There was no evidence of negative attitudes toward the career role for women nor of any maternal influence that would lead the devaluers to associate negative consequences with that role and defensively to adopt antifeminism. Results did support the competence model hypothesis: that it is women whose mothers have not worked who devalue feminine competence.

Career-related achievement is apparently defined as masculine by women who have not been exposed to a maternal model of work competence. However, maternal employment did not influence daughters' attitudes toward the dual role pattern. Whether a woman is favorable to such a pattern depends, instead, on whether her mother endorses it and, if the mother works, on how successfully she has integrated her two roles. Thus, if the woman's mother had worked but had also experienced negative personal consequences because of her career, the woman evaluated women's competence highly but did not favor the dual role pattern. These results indicate the importance of facilities such as day-care centers to help ensure that the dual role pattern is attractive and rewarding. If women work but experience role conflict, their daughters are not likely to favor combining home and occupational roles.

PERCEIVED CONSEQUENCES

The Baruck study also highlights the importance of models. Women who aspire to a career do not usually substitute the work role for the more traditional wife-mother-homemaker one but choose an additional role. In order to aspire realistically to and perform successfully in occupational roles requiring high levels of achievement-directed behavior, women require role models who combine marriage and career satisfactorily. The literature is replete with suggestions concerning the importance of providing female role models to aid in the acculturation of women into nontraditional roles. To defy societal role expectations requires a strong personality, particularly since few women have the opportunity to observe models of women who are intelligent, attractive, respected in their careers, and also successful in their personal relationships.

Role models who are happy and successful in their occupations and dual role patterns provide incentive and information on how to combine roles successfully. As mentioned previously, daughters whose mothers experienced negative personal consequences as a result of the dual role pattern are not motivated to combine roles (Baruch, 1967). The perceived consequences and incentives for engaging in achievement-related behaviors are an important determinant of women's occupational aspirations. Achievement motivation may be of two types: autonomous achievement motivation, which stems from internalized personal standards, and social comparison achievement motivation, which is activated in response to standards of excellence established by others. Due to differences in child-rearing practices, males develop stronger autonomous achievement motivation, and females become more receptive to external cues on standards for appropriate achievement-directed behavior. The female, lacking the firm internal foundations of autonomous motivation, becomes highly sensitive to social feedback, to which she is particularly vulnerable since she is so highly motivated by her need for affiliation (Hoffman, 1972).

Gordon and Hall (1974) found that the woman's perception of the male's stereotype of femininity was the best predictor of various types of role conflict that the woman experienced. Thus, if women believe that their achievement strivings may threaten their affiliative relationships, particularly with significant males, they may experience anxiety and conflict or even sacrifice competence and achievement-related activities (Horner, 1969).

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING WOMEN

How can counselors help women overcome the psychological factors that inhibit their occupational aspirations and limit their career choices? They must first recognize that bias often operates in career counseling (Pietrofesa & Schlossberg, 1970; Thomas & Stewart, 1971); therefore, they must insure that their own biases do not lead them overtly or subtly to discourage women's nontraditional choices.

In addition to overcoming their own biases, counselors need to use materials that represent the full range of women's options; the career information commonly used reflects sex stereotyping (Birk, Cooper & Tanney, 1973). Information concerning emerging opportunities for women in new fields and traditionally male-dominated occupations, as well as financial assistance for women, must be presented to clients.

Testing materiasl should also be free of sex bias. The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (Campbell, 1973) and the Crites' Career Maturity Inventory (Crites, 1969) are examples of such tests.

Counselors can provide leadership to teachers and administrators by suggesting curriculum and materiasl that do not restrict women and men to sex-typed activities. Nonsexist textbooks should be used, and material about women should be included in regular courses in history, economics, literature, social studies, and the arts to dispel the expectation that women do not achieve.

Counselors must be prepared to respond to the special needs of women clients. Differences do exist. Women, for example, display different patterns of achievement motivation, with achievement need often declining during child-raising years and increasing again when children are grown (Baruch, 1967). It is especially useful to emphasize career counseling for women within a life-planning context (Oliver, 1975). Women need to coordinate their career and family planning. Small families and husbands who favor maternal employment and help with household tasks facilitate women's efforts to overcome role conflicts; women need to consider such factors before making their choices. Also, certain careers are more flexible in terms of part-time employment, the hours the woman can work (e.g., nights instead of days), and the option to work at home and, thus, not leave children. Furthermore, some professions, notably the sciences, are difficult to return to if the woman wants to take time off during the years when her children are very young. Her training will probably suffer from obsolescence, and she will find it difficult to keep up with new developments in her field.

Counselors need to educate men as well as women. Young men are future husbands and employers and must be prepared to deal with the needs of working women equitably. Counselors could also hold seminars for parents. Hoffman (1972) stated that one of the optimum conditions for a high-achieving female is a good relationship with a father who encourages her independence and achievement while accepting her as a female. Berry (1972) suggested that educational sessions might help parents understand and accept the life and career perspectives of their daughters.

Finally, counselors can provide role models both of successful, well-integrated, and competent women and of men who value feminine competence and achievement.

Only when societal sex-role stereotypes and attitudes toward competence and achievement in women can be changed and when women can begin to overcome their own inner inhibitions created by their conditioning will women have a genuine freedom to choose roles and to express their full potential through occupational choice.

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"Great and Not-So-Great Expectations"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

A. Objective: Explain the relationship between expectations for success, sex-role stereotypes, and achievements, distinguishing between patterns for men and women.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Participants will individually complete "Expectations Exercise" worksheet.

c. Discuss in small groups:

   1) In what ways were the messages inhibitors in your career development?

   2) In what ways have any messages proven to be an asset in your career development?

   3) Were messages more internal or external and what were factors influencing these?

   4) Are there different messages for different racial groups? Different socioeconomic groups?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pens and pencils.
Handout: "Expectations Exercise" worksheet

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list four expectations and their sources, differentiating between internal and external messages.

EXPECTATIONS EXERCISE

In planning your career, you probably dealt with the expectations you placed on yourself and others placed on you. This exercise will help you become aware of these expectations.

List each expectation and source ("should" messages)	In what ways is this message internal, flowing from yourself?	In what ways is this message external, flowing outside of you?	Did/do you choose to accept this message or do you want to disregard it?

List the first few action steps you will take if you choose to disregard any "should" message.

E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

"The Pressure Cooker of Expectations"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

B. Objective: List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to session, ask participants to bring a catalog from their institution. "Nontraditional" refers to those occupational choices traditionally not deemed appropriate for women (e.g., medicine, engineering, auto repair) or men (e.g., nurse, preschool teacher).

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Participants will go through their institution's catalog (class schedule) and list programs "appropriate" for men and those traditionally "appropriate" for women by marking an "M" or "W" in the margin.

c. Have participants go through materials again and indicate programs they feel their students' parents would approve of for men/women. Use symbol "P-M" or "P-W" in the margin.

d. Now have participants mark the programs/courses they feel students' peers would approve. Use the symbol "PR-M"; "PR-F" for this category.

e. Have participants, in small groups, discuss their findings.

Possible discussion questions:

1) On what basis did you make your decisions?
2) Were there differences based on race, economic class, or physical disability?
3) What part do parents/peers play in your students' career development (choices or decisions)?
4) What has been the rationale or justification for this kind of educational segregation in your institution?
5) How do students, faculty, administrators, and parents feel about these kinds of sex-segregated programs?
6) What can be done to increase educational opportunity for men and women in these programs?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 60 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: School catalog/class schedule

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will categorize the course offerings within their institutions and discuss three sources of traditional sex-role expectations.

"Role Conflicts"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTINS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

B. Objective: List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to session select three panel persons from "nontraditional" (see VII.B.1., "The Pressure Cooker of Expectations," for definition) occupational fields who are open to sharing role conflicts and difficulties experienced. Criteria for selecting these people would be their 1) openness, 2) honesty, 3) evidence of awareness of conflicts and difficulties, 4) humor, and 5) ability to be specific in explaining role conflicts and difficulties experienced. Also, panel should reflect the cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity of our society.

It is recommended that the panel be composed of persons from differing positions within differing occupational fields. Three distinct occupational interest fields might be approximated with blue-collar as well as white-collar workers represented. (See VII.C.2., "Your Support System," which could be combined with this exercise.)

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. The workshop leader brings the panel together and begins by asking each person to tell her or his story in summary. After the initial statement by each, the workshop leader then interviews each of the three, and the panel and leader then open the interviewing to the workshop audience. Workshop participants may ask questions and discuss as a large group the content presented.

c. The workshop leader may wish to present a mini-lecture on literature related to role conflicts and difficulties in nontraditional fields; parallels and contrasts could be drawn between what one may find in the literature and what points have been made by the panel presentation.

d. Following the panel and mini-lecture, workshop participants are formed into small discussion groups, again heterogeneous with respect to sex. Groups are to construct a statement in answer to the following questions:

> "Should educators warn students considering nontraditional fields about the dangers and pitfalls ahead? What should educators do or not do with respect to this problem?"

e. One person from each group reports to the large group of all workshop participants, panel members, and workshop staff her or his group's recommendations.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Members to form a panel on nontraditional careers
References: Kundsin (1974); "Women in Nontraditional Occupations: A Bibliography" (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five role conflicts and difficulties of persons working in nontraditional fields.

"BORN FREE: A World of Options" (Videotape)

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

B. Objective: List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

It is important for the leader to read the Video Viewers' Guide for the tape before using this strategy. Questions in the guide may be used in addition to or instead of the ones below.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "BORN FREE: A World of Options."

c. Four developmental themes are identified in the tape: expectations, socialization, choices, and changes. Discuss in small groups of five to six the messages shared by the interviewees regarding the four themes. Suggested questions are:

1) What unique messages came from the adult women in the tape?
2) Why are Dr. Jeannette Piccard's words especially poignant?
3) What unique messages came from the adult men?
4) How were the messages different depending on race or class?
5) What impression does the kindergarten boy give about differences between girls and boys?
6) What are the reasons that the corporate executive gives for wanting to move "down the up staircase"?
7) In what ways are these people representative of American society at large? In what ways are they not?
8) What are the gains and losses of people changing careers and life styles?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 1, "BORN FREE: A World of Options"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 1: BORN FREE: A World of Options

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will state in four sentences the main generalization which might be derived from each segment of the tape.

"Role Models in Nontraditional Careers"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

B. Objective: List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity requires data to be collected ahead of time by both workshop leaders and participants.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Workshop participants are formed into small groups, hetereogeneous with respect to sex. Group members share what role models most influenced their lives as children and how. A tally of same-sex role models is made. This tally can be taken by workshop leaders at the conclusion of the time allotted to small-group sharing. (Refer to VIII.E.1., "Role Models and Mentors," for strategy on role models and mentors.) See end of this strategy for article.

c. Following these small groups, a lecture on the importance and the impact of role models is given by the workshop leader. Data are presented showing the disparity locally between visible and identified role models for men and women; national data can be used where local data are unavailable. Be sure to use data that show differences by both race and sex.

Workshop participants could use staff rosters from their local schools to estimate quickly the local availability of male and female role models within their institutions. (These rosters would have to be obtained prior to the workshop.)

d. A local guest lecturer, e.g., from the local state department of education, state college board, state vocational education unit, or other unit, then reviews research conducted within the state to ascertain why there is a high attrition rate for persons in nontraditional programs. The relationship between such attrition and the lack of role models within programs is explored.

Note: If available, data from local institutions can be shared showing how there may be relatively large numbers of women in some programs, e.g., veterinary medicine, but that in many classes, e.g., mathematics, where one satisfies important professional requirements, women are apt to represent a minority. Ways to reduce this relative "isolation" and to connect women majoring in nontraditional fields could be explored. Again, pay attention to differences due to race.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 2 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Workshop lecturer on role models
Resource lecturer to review literature on attrition in nontraditional programs and the relationship to lack of same-sex role models
Sample staff roster
Attached article: "The Mentor Connection" (Sheehy, 1976)
Reference: Tidball (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will give three reasons why role models are important in career development.

THE MENTOR CONNECTION:

THE SECRET LINK IN THE SUCCESSFUL WOMAN'S LIFE[1]

by Gail Sheehy

Several leagues above most rising young men on the ladder of achievement one can usually pick out a figure who is ten to twenty years older, wiser, in the same field, and professionally paternalistic--the mentor. For a man in his twenties, the mentor is a guide who regards him as a younger adult but not as a boy or son, who supports the young man's dream and helps him make it a reality. He is a nonparental career-role model. He also offers a critical leg up in helping a young man overcome the father-son polarity. All the studies on normal adult development agree that the presence or absence of such a figure has enormous impact. Think of what Freud did for Jung. Maxwell Perkins for Thomas Wolfe. Yale psychologist Daniel J. Levinson has concluded from his study of the male adult life cycle that a lack of mentors can be a great developmental handicap. But there is a further handicap that men are spared. For them, unlike the situation for women, the mentor and the loved one (the other key figure) are generally two different people.

Fewer mentors are available for women. Indeed, when I brought up the question of mentors with the women I interviewed in the course of my study of adult development, most of them didn't know what I was talking about. Females as mentors have been particularly scarce. And when a man becomes interested in guiding and advising a younger woman, there is usually an erotic interest that goes along with it. We easily recognize the pattern: producer and star, professor and graduate student, director and actress, not to mention Pygmalion and Galatea in mythology, and their contemporary immortalization in the persons of Henry Higgins and his slipper-toting Liza. There is no doubt that both mentor and apprentice reap enormous rewards from the association. It was Colette's first husband who literally sat her down in a room and told her to write. He had the contacts; she was to be his instrument. For all his imperiousness, she did learn to write like a demon and eventually to do it on her own terms.

The kicker is that the relationship of guide and seeker gets all mixed up with a confusing male-female attachment. And it is this mysterious, ambiguous, potentially enriching but possibly crippling attachment with which many successful women and their mentors must cope.

What happens if she becomes confident enough to do without me? the male sponsor often fears. He can keep a finger on the control valve by criticizing her performance or by cutting back on his emotional support. The woman may have a difficult time finding her own equilibrium because her professional, emotional, and often her sexual nourishment as well have their source in the same person. And eventually that person is too much like a father for her own developmental good.

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[1] From: New York, April 5, 1976, pp. 33-40. Permission to reprint granted by Gail Sheehy.

On the other hand, career women who haven't had a mentor relationship miss it, even if they don't know what to call it. Almost without exception, the women I studied who did gain recognition in their careers were at some point nurtured by a mentor.

THE OLD SUCCESS PROFILE

The same finding was made by Margaret Hennig, a joint director of the management program at Simmons College, Boston, Massachusetts, in her 1970 Harvard doctoral study of 25 high-level women executives. *All* had attached themselves very strongly in their early careers to a particular male boss. To find her subjects Dr. Hennig combed *Who's Who in America*, *Who's Who of American Women*, and the annual reports of the top 500 corporations. She found 100 women who hold positions as presidents or vice-presidents of large business and financial corporations. Selecting 25 of them, Dr. Hennig traced their lives stage by stage.

All of these women saw marriage and career as an either-or choice. They chose to reach for more than what the traditional woman's role would allow, and in their twenties put aside most of their romantic yearnings. Hennig set out to learn whether this was a fixed character type--the stock figure of the woman as a male--or whether it was a developmental stage that might lead to resolution later on.

Every one of Hennig's subjects enjoyed the position of being the first-born child. They liked being girls and objected only to people saying there were certain things girls didn't do. Their fathers, however, encouraged them to resist such constraints. This clear and early conflict between the culture's instructions and the freedom encouraged at home figured largely in the formula that brought these women to success.

In early adolescence they resisted the classic Oedipal pattern that eventually would have sent them back to identification with their mothers. They envied the more active and exciting existence of men. Hennig observes that the envy phenomenon here did not seem fraught with any Freudian fears. It was the straightforward desire of human beings who had enjoyed early experiences of freedom and wanted to retain that freedom all their lives.

None of their mothers had particularly magnetic personalities. They were classic care-givers who tried to teach their daughters to be the same. When those daughters entered the crucial period between eleven and fourteen, they resisted being turned into "young ladies," moved away from their mothers, and found their fathers to be the port in the storm. But there is no evidence that the fathers treated their little girls *as* boys. Instead, a unique element in the dynamic between father and daughter was described by all the subjects. The relationship transcended both of their sexes.

The fathers did not in any way reject the femininity of these girls. They did emphasize skills and abilities rather than any sex role. It was common for the two to play tennis or sail together and to talk about Dad's business. One has the feeling these men were seeking in the daughters the comradeship they couldn't have with their more limited wives. Although their wives were definitely expected to be noncompetitive and nonachieving, the men took pride in a competitively successful daughter. Such a daughter is often the favorite because she, unlike a son, can reflect well on the father without becoming a rival. And encouraging her will not mean losing the services of a wife.

When Hennig's outstandingly successful women were questioned about the family romance, the very notion that they might have had to rival their mothers for their fathers' attentions struck them as foreign. Their mothers were felt to be no threat at all. Dad had been won over years before.

The relationship between father and daughter remained constant throughout the tempest of adolescence: the fathers confirmed the girls' self-worth and became their chief source of rewards.

All Hennig's subjects went to college, and all but one chose a coeducational university, preferring to be educated in a profession-oriented environment and in the company of men. Half majored in business or economics, presumably influenced by their fathers as occupational role models; only a few chose liberal arts. They excelled academically. Three years after graduation, they had become secretaries or administrative assistants in manufacturing, retailing, banking, public relations, or service companies. Most of these positions were made available as favors to their fathers.

The career pattern usually followed by a male *Wunderkind* is to company-hop with a roving eye toward maximizing opportunities. But it was clear to these women that a woman could advance only by proving herself more skilled than any man available for the job above hers. And since it took enormous effort to establish good working relationships in one company, they felt it would be wasteful to move to another. So they were impressively loyal. Over the next 30 years, every one of them remained with the same firm until they were rewarded with a top management position.

It never occurred to them as young women that marriage and children might have to be forfeited forever. But around the age of 25, Hennig observes, all of them "stored their femininity away for future consideration." Although most of them had dated regularly up to that time, they now limited themselves to married or unattainable men, and allowed little room for expression of their sexual desires.

One deep and vital attachment was formed by all these women in their twenties: to the boss, who took over where their fathers left off. Once in the protective custody of her mentor, each of the subjects subordinated all other relationships to him. The repetition of earlier experiences was plain. The mentor was one person she could dare to reveal all her sides to, and he, like the father, supported her and cheered her on. When he was promoted, she was promoted along with him at his request.

Sooner or later every apprentice must reject the absolute power of the mentor if the apprentice is to emerge as owner of his or her own authority. Psychologist Levinson flatly states that a man cannot have a mentor after 40. From the many female case histories I have collected, it is my observation that women in business who remain reliant cannot advance to the top position and are likely to become a millstone to their mentors, who usually in the end discard them.

All 25 of the executive women studied by Dr. Hennig remained dependent upon their mentors until they reached middle management and the watershed age of 35.

REACHING AGE 35

Thirty-five! Time had suddenly caught up with them. Exceptional as their accomplishments were, they realized they had little else in life but the job. The edge of challenge had worn off. At the same time, they felt more secure in their professional stature than they had ever dared imagine. When they took a close look at the Big Mentor-Little Me relationship, many of the women were astounded to discover it had evolved into an association of peers. The carpet beneath them was kicking up in every corner. Those sticky feminine questions that previously had been swept under it could no longer be ignored. An accounting was imperative, for now the issue had come to crisis.

Their explanations of the crisis always had to do with biological age: "I suddenly realized that I had a limited period of time if I was going to have children." The biological boundary line did not turn out to be the real issue, however. It was simply the motivator. The real issue was: "What happened to that piece of me I left behind and intended to pick up in five or seven years? It's now fifteen years."

The consistency with which these women chose to handle their midlife crisis is truly remarkable. All 25 took a moratorium for a year or two. They continued to work, but much less strenuously. With devil-may-care exuberance they all did things like buying flirtatious new wardrobes and having their hair restyled. They let themselves have fun again and freed the time to enjoy the sexual part of their being.

Almost half the women married professional men they met during this period. Their nurturing side came into play, too. Though none had natural children, all those who married became stepmothers.

The other half apparently did not meet anyone they could marry; when this momentous change caught them by surprise, they had literally no social life. But the fact of marrying or not marrying proved to make little difference. The women who remained single, no less than the others, realized they could not go on without making a basic shift. They, too, became more outgoing, more responsive to people, and often, for the first time, were willing to become mentors themselves.

Two years or so after their moratoriums, all the women recommitted themselves to a goal of working toward top management. But their behavior and sense of self had undergone a profound change. With relative ease they outgrew the dependence on their mentors. They weren't acting a stock part in some early Joan Crawford film anymore. Their exchanges with people had become more honest and spontaneous. Where formerly they had felt segmented, they now began to feel more nearly integrated. And instead of describing themselves, as they did in earlier stages, as "satisfied" or "rewarded," for the first time they all added the word *happy*.

"It was never a simple case of what others did to them which made so much conflict in their lives," Hennig concludes, "but very much a case of what they did with the duality within themselves. Clearly, this process was made more difficult...because of societal and cultural attitudes about women who seek executive careers. Yet it was much easier for them to find ways to avoid those external conflicts than to overcome their internal ones."

A not-so-happy ending awaited a control group of women who got frozen in middle management. When Dr. Hennig compared them to the major research group, she found that the parental situation had been very different: these fathers had treated their daughters not somewhat as they might have treated a son, but *exactly* like sons. Their femininity was virtually denied; some were even called by boys' names. As they moved up in occupational life, these women formed only "buddy" relationships. Perhaps most important, they never allowed themselves a crisis, not even in midlife. Whatever gates had been latched inside they left latched. None married. This group tended to remain dependent on their mentors until the mentors dropped them. They did not proceed to the top, but arrived in their fifties lonely as women, second-best as executives, feeling bitter and cheated as people. Those businesswomen who did bring to the surface in midlife an emotional, sexual, and nuturing side that had been left behind easily outgrew their mentors and shortly thereafter broke out of middle management, moving on to the president's or vice-president's chair and a triumph of personal integration.

THE NEW SUCCESS PROFILE

Obviously, the bright young achievers of today face fewer inner and outer obstacles than did women who tried to launch careers in darker decades and who were often misshapen by ridicule for being unmarried. They were restricted almost entirely to male models and male mentors. Whatever fresh inspiration their femaleness might have brought to business and politics was for the most part buried, lest they be backed into the female stereotype and labeled "too emotional."

But the life cycle of a career-minded woman must still be carefully, almost exquisitely, calibrated if she is to integrate her professional aspirations with a personal life worth living. One common (though usually accidental) profile is the woman who is divorced by the time she turns 30 and who then concentrates her energies on developing competence and confidence with the kind of tunnel vision that is routine for men in their twenties. A more fruitful pattern appears to be deferment of marriage and children altogether until the woman has done her time as an apprentice. Among 1,500 achievers randomly selected from several editions of *Who's Who of American Women*, slightly more than half have married. But first, once they had their bachelor's degrees, they devoted an average of seven years' undivided attention to their careers. And among women who are remarkably and visibly accomplished, a significant number did not become mothers until they were 35 or over--Margaret Mead, Barbara Walters, and Shana Alexander among them.

BLAIR'S STORY

The actual outcome of deferred marriage and motherhood is, of course, anything but a sure thing. The biography of a contemporary woman I shall call Blair is instructive.

"I was going to be on the cover of *Time*, but I was also going to have four children."

Blair is now aware that this is called a conflicted vision. She is older. No such awareness penetrated during the early years when she was racing to the top. In 1954 she was sixteen years old and fresh out of high school. She fell in love, not with a man, with the notion of becoming a success fast.

"I had a dream of myself as someone singular."

At sixteen, she had no time for college, nor did her parents encourage it. She started work as assistant to an auto dealer. A few years later Blair was ready to take on all of General Motors. She opened her own auto business with another woman. Immediately, she drew the responses she wanted, which were more of the same she had enjoyed at home from her father. She idolized him as an intellectual, a political radical, and most of all, a success. His ethos was to run on one's wits and to get there first. He was particularly charmed when Blair skipped two grades at school. That put her way ahead; she had started out as the firstborn of the family.

After a few years in the gamy auto business, she decided to scale one of Chicago's glossier pyramids. She chose a middle-sized advertising agency. Was she "running for president"? I asked.

"I would never have said *president*. When my boss took me to a birthday lunch, he asked me, 'What do you want to be when you're 25?' I told him, 'Vice-president of this ad agency.' That was the biggest thing I could think of."

Her boss became the central figure of her twenties--her mentor. He gave his blessing to her highest aims. She gave him back adoration.

"I had an enormous attachment to that man. He made reading lists for me, and I just soaked it up. We traveled together. He would even stay over at my apartment. But no sex. He had an iron-clad rule that one doesn't dip the pen into office ink." It was the perfect relationship, she thought, except that it left her without a boyfriend.

The Poet, the first man she gave her feelings to, was the one who hurt her. He went on about the toils of the soul as leader of her Great Books group, but when it was discovered that he had made her pregnant, he went away.

It was a dichotomy that continually plagued her. "Men were attracted and then they would say, 'You're too much for me.' Whereas in business I could never do too much. People loved me for my ideas and gave me prizes. In one world I was revered; in the other I was a freak."

Bear in mind this was the 1950s. The suffragist movement was dead, and the feminist movement hadn't been born. Blair was daring to make a bold assertion of ambition while the bulk of women were engaged in one of the greatest back-to-the-kitchen slides in American history.

Her father ran off with a Mexican dancer. She took it as a personal rejection. She also began to suspect that he wasn't the intellectual or the political radical she had thought. But even as Blair feared she might turn out just like her father--all flash and no sustaining personal investments--he was the parent with whom she most consciously identified.

If guardedness had been her hallmark where men were concerned, she became now as impersonal as a Holiday Inn. "Drop by anytime you're in town," she would say. "Come for dinner, spend the weekend, whatever," creating the impression she was fine whether a man was there or not. Any man should feel free to leave. When he did, she bled inside and was baffled.

The costs in shallow love affairs and two shabby abortions were high. Yet in this fledgling period, when proving herself a competent executive absorbed all her resources, it was less painful to suffer the costs of leaving her sexuality unexamined. What could she do with it? Make a marriage and join the handicapped? Watch her boss look her in the eye, as at one whose affliction was always suspected, and say, "No sense training you; you'll just leave to have a baby." The dictates of her unconscious were to leave all those emotions in some distant reservoir. To let them erupt might have sunk her into a wash of unresolvable contradictions.

Blair compensated for her childlessness by lavishing attention on her nieces and nephews. She concentrated on the satisfaction of being bolder and more professionally accomplished than any other woman she knew. One day the powers that be would deliver to her door a fantastic gift box. The card would read: "To someone truly singular."

The time came, when she was 26, to overcome the dependence on her mentor. Or to go backward. He had been raided for a better position with another firm. But the offer, he said, did not include bringing along a woman whose status and salary might foment a revolt in the typing pool.

"Years later he admitted that in the beginning he'd had no idea I would advance enough to be a challenge. And there I was, vice-president. He was afraid if he took me along I'd outstrip him."

She moved out, and up, to the vice-presidency of a more prestigious agency, where she supervised national accounts. Quite by surprise, when the door opened on her 27th year, she found herself one floor above her dream. Directions please!

No new plan suggested itself. "It wasn't that the right man came along. I had gone beyond my imaginings in business, and everyone else was married. I had to live out all my fantasies of what a wife was."

A wife, so often, is her mother. Blair's mother and younger sister had both married the promise of model homes, higher status, and permanent security. "Just the worst! I was never going to have a marriage like that. But I ended up doing the *same thing*." Her choice was a hard-driving businessman with political ambitions.

Blair gave up her job shortly after the wedding. She filled the wifely role to malicious perfection.

"You don't seem very enthusiastic about giving all these business parties," her husband would say.

"I'm doing exactly what you wanted!" she would shout back. "I'm being the fashionable wife; I'm in the newspaper. It was *you* who wanted someone who didn't work."

All of which baffled her husband. He had enough to contend with in swerving toward the age of 40.

"Why don't we go away then and live a quiet life?" he would suggest when the din of her socializing had abated with the day and they were in bed. "I'm fed up with myself, with performing for clients."

Blair would curl up like a conch and pretend sleep.

"You don't love me," he would say, waiting for a refutation that was not forthcoming.

The convoluted truth she could not explain was that Blair was busy living out her mother's life and hating it. Once she had gained recognition as an executive whiz, she felt something else missing. Instead of sifting out the parts of her own femaleness that she might have enjoyed, and trying to integrate them with her professional activities, she threw herself into the "bad mother" role. She had to become a parody of that inner custodian in order to end up being more the woman she wanted to be.

This is not at all unusual. People in the passage to the thirties may convert suddenly into living out a mother's or a father's life without recognizing the origin. They may hate the rigidity of this new life and feel ruled by some mysterious demon. But many of us have to live out the bad parts of a strong and conflicted identification before we can incorporate the good ones.

In the process Blair acted like one possessed. While her husband was being buffeted about by a normal crisis of midlife that he didn't understand, Blair kept accumulating fat. It ran into all her corners and hardened like aspic and covered everything, her looks, her sexual desire, her dreams. "I had a feeling all was not well. I wasn't in charge of me. Something felt binding, but I couldn't put my finger on what. I put it all down to my weight."

At 30, Blair told her husband, "All I want to do is go away and get rid of this abominable fat."

DIVORCE AND MAGIC

For all her accelerations in development, it took Blair until the age of 35 to begin bringing her warring parts into peaceful accommodation. Like so many people, she thought, "All the bad things will go away if I get divorced."

At the base of that thought is a common magical belief. One can get rid of the unresolved problems of self by getting rid of the person onto whom one has been projecting them. In Blair's case, the projected problem was her own conflict between being an indulged wife like her mother and a high-powered business whiz, as her father wanted her to be. It wasn't her husband who insisted she give up her career; it was Blair who had to "live out my fantasies of what a wife was." But she found herself no less impoverished as a self-made charge-account wife than she had been as a bloodless success machine.

Unfortunately, before Blair could see the double-bind her own contradictions had created, she helped to provoke her husband into a dismal faithlessness, then into throwing plates, until the marriage was brought to dissolution.

"When I finally did leave," she says, "it was with three years of thinking in my head. Given a choice, I would never have walked through the ugly doors of those three years, but I was compelled. For the first time now, I'm being honest about my feelings."

Having challenged the almost gravitational pull that once attached her to her mentor, and survived, Blair is probably readier than most to face one of the terrifying truths revealed in the second half of life: we stand alone.

On her thirty-fifth birthday Blair bought a little house. Home owner--the very act of making that commitment to and by herself has begun a centering. "I can't be anybody's appendage anymore," she has realized. "And I won't let men just walk through my life either, the way I did in the old days when I made myself a hotel."

Her greatest surprise was to discover that all her problems were not with her father, as she had thought. "The unresolved problems were with my mother and how to identify with being a woman. What I might be now is a whole person who is not afraid of loving someone or having him love me."

Another vivid change concerns Blair's perspective on work: "I've seen the hotshots as grown-ups by now and said to myself, 'This is the top? They can have it!' What interests me more is trying to do work of higher quality. I can do it now without a hot coal in my stomach and the fear I used to have--that any minute now they'll find out I didn't go to college and I can't spell."

There is about her an expectancy, as if she is waiting to put the major missing piece into her life. The children she never had are uppermost in her mind. "Yet I'm aware that the children I'm going to have may always be someone else's children--my sister's children or the children of the man I marry."

She smiles and swallows the last of a brandy. "On balance, I have so much more than I expected. And that may be what life is. Maybe you get the box and not the ribbon."

THE MEN THEY LEAVE BEHIND

It would be unfair to leave this subject without a word of compassion for the mentor's position. To him falls an often unwanted burden. He may intend no more than to take an aspirant out to lunch, sweet-talk her a little, explore her talent, and educate her efforts. Before he knows it he has one big gooey ego on his hands waiting to be shaped, pampered, prized, and parented. She commonly expects him to tell her not only how to do her work, but how to do her life. The first time the mentor is less than attentive to her labors or her current life crisis, she is crushed. She broods: *He doesn't think I'm good enough after all.* Or she lashes out: "You don't *really* care, you're just exploiting me!" Or she goes away bitter and bad-mouths him forever after.

Even the best of all outcomes will not be without some pain. Just as child must inevitably see parent as less than the repository of all the world's wisdom, so must the apprentice eventually repudiate the mentor in order to believe in her independence. What small corner of his heart dies when she slips away? Will she honor him, ridicule him, immortalize him in her memoirs, dissect him with her psychiatrist, or will she simply leave him to his sunset years forgotten?

It is possible, of course, that after a predictable period of strain during which the seeker is distancing herself from her former guide, the two will find their way back to a footing as friends. This requires an exceptional degree of sensitivity on both their parts. After all, not many parents live to reap the joys of full reconciliation with their nurslings. Perhaps a general epitaph is in order for all those guides who have already gone to their Maker unsung: Praise be to the mentor who endured a thankless protégée.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

VII.B.5.

"Women and Men in Nontraditional Careers: A Fantasy Exercise"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

B. Objective: List and illustrate various sources of pressure students desiring nontraditional fields may experience.

5. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to assist participants in identification of choices that are influenced by sex-role stereotyping. Since participants will experience a "relaxation exercise" prior to the fantasy, it is suggested that this activity be conducted in a fairly comfortable area. You may want a blackboard and/or newsprint pad available for the small-group processing. Due to the various segments of the strategy, the leader will want to allow sufficient time for this activity.

To supplement this strategy you may wish to show "The Joy of Choosing" videotape.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Organize participants into small discussion groups of eight to ten each.

c. Ask discussion groups to quickly "elect" a discussion group leader and secretary (be alert to process here--men may emerge as discussion group leaders and women as secretaries; such stereotyping can later be processed).

d. Conduct relaxation exercise (attached).

e. In relaxed state, and as participants keep eyes closed, slowly read fantasy of incoming male (leaders adapt to your own institution) who enters the secretarial training program.

f. Ask participants to open eyes and in their small groups discuss questions related to the male fantasy. (The fantasy should provoke many reactions. As leader be flexible and let discussions go into any energized, but in your judgment, fruitful direction.)

g. Ask for reports from discussion group leaders. Leader should summarize and use this opportunity for teaching. (Mini-lecturing, however, is to be avoided.)

h. Take students in their small groups through a shortened version of the first relaxation exercise.

i. Ask students to open their eyes and discuss questions related to the female fantasy.

j. Have small-group discussion leaders report results; leader should once again summarize and use opportunities for instruction as they arise.

k. Leader summarizes and provides a mini-lecture, defining sex-role stereotyping formally, and relates data/knowledge about the home school. Lecture material can be linked to discussion comments, issues raised, as well as local issues. The purpose is to give participants a wide view of sex-role stereotyping at one's particular institution.

Minimum Time Required: 2-3 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Relaxation Exercise"
"Fantasy of an Incoming Male Student" and Discussion Questions
"Fantasy of an Incoming Female Student" and Discussion Questions
Materials: Videotape, No. 4, "The Joy of Choosing" (optional), and Viewer's Guide

Outcome Criterion:

After participating in the fantasy exercise, participants will list two new awarenesses gained from the strategy.

RELAXATION EXERCISE[*]

Sit in a comfortable posture in your chair. I am about to take you through some relaxation exercises. None of these will require any embarrassing positions; we will be stretching and tensing muscle groups and relaxing them. You are free to participate or not, but if you chooose not to, please remain quiet in your chair with your eyes closed.

Now, close your eyes and take a deep breath. Inhale deeply, hold your breath a couple of seconds, then exhale slowly. Let all the air out. Imagine you're a balloon. You fill up, more, more, the balloon inflates; you hold the air inside the balloon, one, two and release the air. You, the balloon, contract, flattening, as the air escapes totally and the balloon goes limp. (Repeat this breathing 3-4 times.)

As you breathe deeply, slowly, listen to your breathing and your heart. Can you hear it? Is your breathing shallow, your heartbeat quick? Notice as you breathe deeply, your breath becomes less shallow and more deep; your heart pumps less quickly and more deeply, evenly.

Listen to your mind. Many thoughts there? Just let your thoughts go. Don't try to stop your thoughts from occurring, just let them happen as they will. Imagine you are a deep pool of water. Thoughts are air bubbles rising off the bottom to the surface. Pop! The bubbles release quietly and easily on the surface. So it it with your thoughts. Let them rise as they will, and just let them go....

Now, let tension out of your muscle groups. Begin with your scalp - the top of your head. Tighten your scalp, but not too tight - don't hurt yourself - and let it go. Tighten...hold it a couple of seconds...and let it go.

Visualize the tension flowing from your head - your scalp - down into your trunk, down your legs, into your feet, and out through the soles of your feet. Each tensing pulls some of your tension together, each holding gets the tension ready to leave you, and each letting go sends it on its way down, down and out the soles of your feet away from you. Make a spot check once or twice as you go to see if tension has returned, e.g., to facial muscles. If tension has returned, take a moment to release it.

(The leader should repeat this procedure systematically with facial muscles, neck muscles, shoulders, right arm, left arm, chest, stomach muscles, buttock and groin, thighs, calves, ankles, and feet. Be unhurried and relaxed in your speech.)

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[*] Adapted from: audiotape on relaxation by Dr. David Wark, University of Minnesota, and author's experience with Transcendental Meditation.

FANTASY OF AN INCOMING MALE STUDENT

Instructions to participants:

a. Now that you're relaxed, keep your eyes closed and listen to the fantasy I'll read. Let yourself go with the fantasy, experience it . . .

b. You are 18, a young man, a student from "Middle-east" High School, just entering "Midwestern" Junior College for the first time, your first quarter. You've chosen "Midwestern" because it's close to home and it's a good buy--low tuition and costs--and you can live at home and continue your job, both economic considerations of paramount importance to you. Because of your family situation, you know you'll have to work your way through school. You are the oldest of five children and all of you will be college age at about two-year intervals.

Your dad is a business executive with a large local corporation where he works in personnel, administering various programs. As a sideline, your dad is in business with your uncle, a small real estate sales business. It's full time for your uncle, and for your dad, part time.

You've worked in the real estate business summers and some during the school year, in the office. At first you answered the phone and ran errands. But soon you were filing and assisting with the paperwork. You liked the office work very much - the variety, the indoors business setting, the contact with people, and handling the phone calls.

Both your dad and your uncle want you to go to the local university and get a business degree. You've been an average student in high school, though undoubtedly you might have gotten higher marks if you'd studied more.

As you come into "Midwestern" Junior College you go through orientation and then meet your counselor. You feel a bit scared and uneasy, and a bit pressured too. You're not sure you can make it in college, much less get a four-year degree. As you talk with your counselor about your plans, it becomes clear that you really like office work and given your concerns about financing your way through college, you decide to get some practical skills in the office work area. You enroll in the general secretarial program! In particular, you've thought about becoming an executive secretary!

You're a bit anxious because you know your dad and your uncle are wanting you to get a four-year business degree instead. What will they think? You know this will be a surprise, and yet they've often praised you for your office work in the real estate office.

You reason you could always go into office management through a general four-year program; and besides, you like office work and know there's a strong demand for male secretaries. You'll be able to get a job if college doesn't go well and, if you stay in college, you will be able to work your way through.

So, you enroll in typing, shorthand, records management, and secretarial machines. On the first day of class you discover you are the only male in any of these classes. Your parents, your girlfriend, and your best friend are all wanting to know what you're taking. So far you've been a bit evasive, but you know you'll tell them soon....

c. Now, open your eyes and discuss the attached questions. (Leader, be alert to "flex" with the flow of discussion--there are bound to be all sorts of reactions.)

Fantasy of an Incoming Male Student

Discussion Questions

a) What were your feelings, reactions?

b) What will be the reactions of your fantasy person's friends? Will he be likely to lose any friends? Why?

c) What will his girlfriend say? Do you think his relationship with his girlfriend will stay the same, improve, or worsen because of his entering the secretarial program? Why?

d) How will his parents react? Why?

e) How will the women students in his shorthand, typing, and records management classes react?

f) Will your fantasy person feel as free to respond to his secretarial instructor(s) as he might in non-secretarial courses?

g) Will your fantasy person persist in secretarial science, i.e., stay one quarter? Two? For a year?

h) What races were the persons in your fantasy? How would the experience of a Chicana/Chicano, Native American, etc., differ from that of a Caucasian person?

FANTASY OF AN INCOMING FEMALE STUDENT

Instructions to participants:

a. Now that you're relaxed, let's focus on a fantasy of a woman student entering "Midwestern" Junior College.

b. You're a 19-year-old woman student entering "Midwestern" Junior College. You've been previously accepted into the dental hygiene program. Your dad is a dentist and he's strongly encouraged you to go into dental hygiene, an "appropriate field for a bright young woman." Your boyfriend also has encouraged you. You and he have talked seriously about marriage, and it seems to both of you that you can graduate from dental hygiene and then work as he goes ahead to get a graduate degree. He's considering becoming a medical doctor, and that will take quite a few years to accomplish.

   Your close friends admire you for gaining acceptance. Dental hygiene, after all, is a high-status field for a woman, and only the brightest women are accepted into this field.

   But, you're having second thoughts. You've always loved math and science and lately you've felt unsure about a career in dental hygiene. However, you haven't really shared with anyone what you've been feeling.

   Then you come to "Midwestern" for orientation. The presentation on sex-role stereotyping starts you thinking--"maybe I should consider a career for myself that's nontraditional. I have, after all, always loved to discover what makes things work. I've repaired cars and constantly seem to be tinkering with this or that."

   You meet your counselor. You admit to indecision about the matter and she/he points out to you that your high school record indicates you have the background and ability to pursue graduate work! You're surprised. No one has told you that before. She/he also points out what you're coming to realize - that you chose dental hygiene for two reasons: first, to please your parents and boyfriend; and second, because you don't really know what you do want.

   You decide not to enter dental hygiene. You also decide to try a quarter of engineering courses. You're tentative now about engineering but decide for this quarter, you'll try out the courses. You can see, based on what your counselor points out to you, that the courses would meet requirements in a wide variety of fields anyway. So you enroll in engineering calculus, physics, and engineering dynamics.

   On the first day of class you discover you are the only woman in your three engineering courses....

c. Now, open your eyes and discuss the attached questions. (Leader, be alert to the flow of discussion - there are bound to be all sorts of reactions.)

Fantasy of an Incoming Female Student

Discussion Questions

a) What were your feelings and reactions as you listened to the fantasy?

b) What will be the reactions of your fantasy woman's female friends? Will she be likely to lose any friends? Why? Why not?

c) What will her boyfriend say? Do? Will their relationship change? How?

d) What will her dad say? Mom? What do you think her parents will do?

e) How will the men students in her calculus, physics, and dynamics courses react? Why?

f) Will your fantasy woman feel as free to respond to her instructors in her engineering courses as she might have were she enrolled in dental hygiene courses? Why? Will the grade outcomes be affected? How?

g) Will your fantasy woman persist in engineering? Why might she not persist?

h) Why are mathematics and physics professions and classes so unacceptable to women?

"Institutional Assessment"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Drawing on personal experience as a student adviser, teacher, or administrator, explain the ratio of males and females in your field, considering those factors that tend to encourage women and men students to enroll in certain courses and to avoid others.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to the session have participants read "Teacher Education: A New Set of Goals" (McCune, Matthews, and Earle, 1977). Have participants conduct an informal survey on non-sex-biased practices at their institution on one or more of the following: orientation practices for women and men, information distributed by the alumni/endowment offices, publicity written about the institution (including language and pictures), information provided during the advisory process (e.g., is information the same for women and men? What subtleties are involved?), or number of women and men enrolled in various curricula.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants divide into small groups (five to six persons), select a recorder, and then share the information gathered by participants. Ask participants to use the McCune, Matthews, and Earle article as reference during the discussion.

c. When participants have shared the information gathered, ask them to brainstorm strategies they might use to influence or change sex-biased attitudes and/or behaviors in their institution.

d. Ask the small-group recorder to share the information gathered by individual participants. The leader should place these on newsprint and use the reports as a means for integrating the small-group discussion and the handout.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 15 minutes to read handout
45 minutes for sharing and discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint, information collected prior to session
Handout: "Teacher Education: A New Set of Goals" (McCune, Matthews, and Earle, 1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify two institutional practices or facts which demonstrate sex bias and provide strategies for change.

TEACHER EDUCATION: A NEW SET OF GOALS[1]

by Shirley McCune, Martha Matthews, and Janice Earle

With the passage of Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments, the elimination of sex discrimination and sex-role stereotyping became not only a matter of sound educational policy and practice, but also a matter of compliance with federal law. Institutions that train education personnel shoulder a double burden under this law: They must not only assure their own compliance with Title IX, but they must also prepare students to provide the leadership and technical capability necessary for the impliementation of Title IX and the attainment of sexual equality. By the very nature of the functions they perform, these institutions impinge directly on or affect indirectly a large number of the people who provide educational services as well as the students in training for professional roles. These functions include:

- the preparation of school personnel for professional positions in the staffing of schools and educational institutions,
- the provision of a major resource for the research and investigation of professional issues related to education,
- the determination of the changing body of knowledge and technology that is relevant to education,
- the development of programs or curriculums for use in schools, and
- the provision of a major source of continuing inservice education for educational practitioners.

There is evidence to suggest that teacher education has functioned to model and perpetuate stereotyped expectations and roles rather than to assume leadership for educational change. Sex stereotyping and sex discrimination are evident in the institutional structures, the curriculum, the research and development efforts, and the behavior of faculty and administrators within these institutions. In institutional structures, for example, sex discrimination is often reflected in the employment patterns. Data obtained from 208 responses to a 1974 questionnaire mailed to 1,100 departments or schools of education indicated that in those institutions responding, 73 percent of all tenured faculty were males. A further indication of sex typing within education faculties is that females are most frequently represented in areas such as human development or curriculum, while males are the strong majority in educational administration, educational research, and educational philosophy.

In the matter of curriculum, more than 5,000 courses in women's studies were offered in institutions of higher education in 1975, yet surveys indicated that only 184 courses--offered in 94 institutions--relating to women's studies on sex-role stereotyping could be identified in schools or departments of education from 1973 to 1975. This general lack of awareness of the issues of sex-role stereotyping and sex discrimination is further demonstrated in the "Standards for Accreditation of Teacher Education." The 540 accredited institutions account for the preparation of 82 percent of the teachers and a majority of the counselors and administrators who graduate from institutions of higher education each year. Although the proposed revision of standards represents a substantial improvement in earlier standards by recognizing the values of diverse cultural groups and need for educational programs that include the general principles of multicultural education, there is not a single reference to the need for attention to sex-role socialization and sex discrimination in educational programs.

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[1] From: American Education, 1977, 13(5), 24-25. Reprinted by permission of Shirley McCune, Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, National Foundation for the Improvement of Education.

In research and development, the third set of evidence of discrimination, institutions of higher education frequently operate apart from practitioners, and their research and development efforts often reflect this isolation. A review of the content of doctoral dissertation titles in the field of education revealed that 52 dissertations completed in 1975-76 dealt with issues related to sex-role stereotyping, whereas 96 such dissertations were carried out in the field of psychology. While this demonstrates a growing attention to research that delineates the nature of sex-role socialization and its individual and societal outcomes, it raises a question about the amount of such research that is being carried out in schools and departments of education. Among other neglects, research and development efforts have, for the most part, failed to include the investigation of issues or the development of products that relate to sex-role socialization, sex-role stereotyping, or sex discrimination. Seldom have education faculty members encouraged and supported student research and development in these areas. The cumulative effect of multiple investigations initiated and supported by faculty could make a substantial contribution to a relevant issue facing practitioners and the larger society.

Finally, education faculties, like all groups in our society, have been socialized both personally and professionally on the basis of sexist assumptions and values. Their beliefs regarding appropriate roles and behaviors for members of each sex affect not only their own behaviors and careers but also those of students. Schools and departments of education, like higher education in general, make little provision for the systematic inservice development of their faculty. As a result, many faculty members remain unaware of their part in the perpetuation of sex-role stereotyping as they conduct classes, engage in research, and influence departmental policies and practices.

Attainment of nonsexist teacher education will require working toward a set of clearly stated goals:

1) To instruct students in how cultural and sexual identities influence the growth and development of individuals.

2) To give students a basis for appreciation of multicultural (includes racial-ethnic cultures and sex-role cultures) identity and diversity as factors to be considered in the organization of educational institutions and services.

3) To elucidate the general principles relating to educational equity and the specific issues of sex-role stereotyping and sex discrimination in education.

4) To clarify the specific requirements of the Title IX regulation and other federal and state nondiscrimination laws.

5) To provide students with the knowledge and skills for the identification and correction of discriminatory policies, practices, and programs.

6) To extend curriculum into areas such as nonsexist, interpersonal relationship skills; nonracist, nonsexist curriculum development; equal employment personnel management; and development and implementation of strategies and technology for achieving equity in education--for example, affirmative action, grievance handling, and institutional self-evaluation.

Some of the actions that administrators and organizations can take to attain these goals are:

DEANS OF EDUCATION

1) Review existing curriculum to ensure provision of information and experiences that would achieve the goals of nonsexist education and the correction of areas of omission or bias. This could be carried out through formation of faculty-student task forces; development of guidelines for faculty to create and establish nonsexist programs; identification of cross-disciplinary resources and programs for curriculum revision and enrichment; identification of areas for research and development related to issues of sex-role socialization, sexism in education, and sex discrimination which could be used for student and faculty research efforts; and development of cross-departmental and practitioner sharing of expertise in research, methods, and practice related to sex-role socialization.

2) Development of a capability to conduct inservice training programs on sexism in education for practitioners.

3) Development and incorporation of research and training efforts that could delineate and remediate those forms of sex bias found in teacher behaviors and educational practice.

4) Full implementation of an institutional self-evaluation to determine overt and covert forms of bias and the development of corrective actions.

5) Development of programs that could provide education and training for faculty members.

NATIONAL AND REGIONAL ACCREDITATION AGENCIES

1) Develop and include accreditation standards requiring content and experiences related to sex-role socialization, sex-role stereotyping, and sex discrimination.

2) Develop evaluation criteria for the review of teacher-education programs to ensure consideration of equity concerns in accreditation review.

3) Develop policies requiring that accreditation-review teams include persons with expertise in the area of sex-role stereotyping and its manifestation in education.

4) Develop and include in accreditation standards criteria for the provision of equal-opportunity employment in departmental policies and practices.

FEDERAL AGENCIES

1) Support research and development of guidelines to modify accreditation and certification standards, so as to include requirements for education content relating to sex-role socialization and sex-role stereotyping.

2) Support the development of a competency-based multicultural curriculum model that would provide methods for affirming sex roles in various cultures.

3) Support models that could increase the knowledge and skills of all faculty members and prepare them for a variety of career roles in education.

4) Support the development of a major curriculum study and of guidelines and materials that reflect changing knowledge, changing methodologies, and multicultural concepts.

STATE EDUCATION AGENCIES

1) Develop accreditation and certification guidelines that require course content dealing with sex-role socialization, sex-role stereotyping, and their subsequent implications for educational practice.

2) Develop workshops, conferences, and collaborative projects for faculty of higher-education institutions which assist understanding and implementation of women's equity.

3) Develop regulations and guidelines that include multicultural and sex-role education issues for renewal of professional certificates.

4) Sponsor educational programs and conferences on multicultural concerns and the technology for achieving educational equity.

5) Develop training models for use by local education agencies in in-service training.

6) Develop policies ensuring that state standards boards include representation of practitioners and persons with expertise in sex-role stereotyping and sex discrimination.

"Your Support System"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Drawing on personal experience as a student adviser, teacher, or administrator, explain the ratio of males and females in your field, considering those factors that tend to encourage women and men students to enroll in certain courses and to avoid others.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants fill out grid "Your Support System," showing where they gain support (self, friends, family, etc.). Have participants check grid for number of men and women, continuous vs. occasional, work-related vs. leisure-related, present vs. past, etc.

c. Discuss in small groups.

d. The grid could be given to a panel of women and men in nontraditional careers to fill out and share.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 50 minutes

This activity could be combined with VII.B.2., "Role Conflicts."

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Your Support System"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete attached grid and list four of their major supports.

YOUR SUPPORT SYSTEM

Directions: List the names of people with whom you share the categories listed. Put a + if this is positive sharing or a - if it is negative sharing.

	School	Work	Family	Financial	Personal	Other
Names	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						
7.						
8.						
9.						
10.						

"Schools as Influencers" (Videotape)

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Drawing on personal experience as a student adviser, teacher, or administrator, explain the ratio of males and females in your field, considering those factors that tend to encourage women and men students to enroll in certain courses and to avoid others.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

For more intensive discussion, and for suggestions for using the videotape, see Video Viewers' Guide No. 7: Schools as Influencers.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "Schools as Influencers."

c. Critical incidents in the educational experience are identified in the first section of this tape. Communication between students and staff, school policies, peer influences, segregation of subjects, and other issues are discussed in the second segment, as they affect what students see as acceptable or possible in terms of their own career decisions. In the third segment, some innovative educators share their experiences and their ideas of what to do to encourage unlimited career options. In small groups of five to six, discuss the critical incidents, the issues, and possible solutions. Possible discussion questions are:

1) Which of the incidents did you identify with or think was the most real?
2) Have you experienced similar incidents during your education?
3) If you are or even were an educator, have you had similar experiences with students? Do you think that the incidents and issues are representative of fact? If not, why not?
4) If you are a parent, have your children had similar experiences during their school years? If so, what was your reaction? And what, if anything did you do?
5) What do you think educators can do to improve career options for students?
6) Is there anything that you, as a parent/citizen, can do to increase career options for all students?
7) Does your school or college have a systematic career development/career education program? Does it perpetuate stereotypes or really try to expand opportunities? What can you do to help develop one?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 7, "Schools as Influencers"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 7: Schools as Influencers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will have actively participated in the discussion of the influence of schools in career development generally and in their own individual career decisions.

"Colleges as Influencers" (Videotape)

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Drawing on personal experience as a student adviser, teacher, or administrator, explain the ratio of males and females in your field, considering those factors that tend to encourage women and men to enroll in certain courses and to avoid others.

4. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants view the half-hour color videotape "Colleges as Influencers."

c. This videotape examines a few of the problems faced by students as they attempt to get the most from their higher education experience. It also looks at issues of faculty concern in the area of career development and sex bias. In small groups, have participants discuss the messages provided by the interviewer regarding the themes of nontraditional career choices, reentry, promotion and tenure, role models and implications for the future. Some suggested questions for discussion are listed below. For more detailed questions, please refer to Video Viewers' Guide No. 8: Colleges as Influencers.

1) What is the overall message of the tape?
2) In what ways did the tape personally have an impact on you?
3) What did the students in nontraditional careers have to say about their choices? What were the inhibitors, the facilitators? What role does support from colleagues and peers play?
4) Entering or reentering school provides one with a unique set of issues. What are some of the issues as they relate to assistance in selection of vocational or other educational programs, strain upon personal/family relationships, financial concerns, etc.?
5) How do the comments on role models and mentors affect the world of students? Of faculty?
6) Several interviewers commented on the subtle distinctions which may occur in working with men and women students. What were these and how might they affect the choices made by students?
7) Reference was made to the inequity of promotion and tenure possibilities between men and women. How does this occur despite legal changes?
8) How can the structure of the educational system be changed so that students can have equal access to programs and faculty to jobs and promotions?

9) What special issues must be looked at regarding race, class, physical handicap, etc.?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes for tape
30 minutes for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Videotape No. 8, "Colleges as Influencers"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 8: Colleges as Influencers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write four main generalizations which might be derived from the themes presented on the tape and indicate how the themes are personally relevant.

"Socializing Career Interests"

VII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

D. Objective: Recognizing that currently boys exhibit more interest in mathematics and science, whereas girls exhibit more interest in language and literature, demonstrate the ways in which these early socialization patterns affect the selection of majors by undergraduate male and female students.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants read the Tobias article on "Math Anxiety." Ask participants to discuss implications for the students with whom they come in contact. Drawing from their own experiences, ask them to make a judgment about math requirements (for admission and in the curriculum) for different programs and the sex distribution in those programs. Possible discussion questions are listed below:

1) What did they discover that they did not know before?
2) What have been their experiences with students making career choices influenced largely by math requirements?
3) What "messages" seem to have affected their students in regard to their persistence of feelings of competence in math?
4) What kinds of subtle messages do teachers, professors, and counselors communicate about differential expectations in mathematics for males and females? Are the messages the same for all races?

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "Math Anxiety" (Tobias, 1975)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will identify three ways in which women's career decisions are limited by deficiencies in mathematics. Participants will suggest three strategies by which problems related to math and science options for women may be dealt with.

*MATH ANXIETY**

by Sheila Tobias

The young instructor stood in front of the group of students, faculty, and administrators. "I'd like you to do a simple subtraction in your heads," he said. "A woman is thirty-eight, and this is 1976; in what year was she born?" The group was nervous. Was this a test? Were they going to have to compete with one another for the right answer? Should they raise their hands? He wanted none of this. "Just do the problem in your head; don't tell me the answer. But be prepared to tell me how you came up with it." Everyone relaxed. Somehow, if no "right answer" were being demanded, it was easier to comply. And so it began.

As each person told how she or he had subtracted 38 from 76, the mood of the group shifted from incredulousness to laughter. "I had that certain feeling I had to get to the nearest ten," admitted one adult man. "And so I subtracted seventy-six from eighty and thirty-eight from forty and then adjusted my answer to account for what I had done." "I took my own age," a woman in her thirties recounted, "and knowing when I was born, I subtracted the difference between the ages and had the answer. "I wrote the subtraction on a blackboard in my mind," said a third, "and then 'did' the problem the way I was taught in school." Around the room the instructor went. No two had done the problem quite the same way. People were stunned at the ingenuity of others' methods but each found her or his own perfectly reasonable. Mostly everyone laughed, first at the others, then at themselves.

"All these methods," the instructor finally commented, "represent perfectly good algorithms--systems for finding answers in a definite way. Few of you used the method you had been taught in school and most of you were ashamed that you did not. You think there's something wrong with having to get to the nearest ten. But there isn't. It's okay so long as it's correct and you're comfortable with it. And what's comfortable for you may not make the next person comfortable."

Everyone felt better.

The instructor went on to teach a number system, used by the Incas, which is based on five and involves many different ways of handling symbols. Later, he played some three-dimensional ticktacktoe. And he explained how confusing it is to learn arithmetic in elementary school when as a child in kindergarten you are told unequivocally that zero is "nothing"; in first grade that it is a "place-holder"; and in fifth grade that you can't divide by zero. No wonder you didn't learn arithmetic, he implied: you were too smart, too bothered by inconsistency, too creative, to ingest all this nonsense.

The "class" was an experimental demonstration and discussion of math anxiety, a condition that disproportionately affects females and racial

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* From: Ms., September 1976, pp. 56-59, 92. © Ms. Magazine Corp., 1976. Reprinted with permission.

minorities of both sexes; and the goal of the series was to find out more about math anxiety and to begin to search out ways of overcoming it.

Some of us teachers attending that first class had become intrigued with the problem of "math avoidance" during the previous year. We had been noticing great reluctance on the part of women college students to take courses that required or might require at a later stage either calculus or heavy use of algebra or rigorous statistics. Some of our students were even contemplating changing their majors to avoid math prerequisites. Adult women, too, who came for vocational counseling, were entirely unwilling to contemplate new careers having to do with data or with "things." They wanted to work with people, they said plaintively. At first we accepted this at face value, understanding that having been socialized as women, they felt at home in the helping professions. But when feminist sociologist Lucy Sells reported on the inadequate math preparation of entering Berkeley students, the pieces of the puzzle began to fit into place.

Of the entering class at Berkeley in 1973, Sells reported that 57 percent of the males brought with them four years of high school math, but only 8 percent of the entering females had the same preparation. Thus, 92 percent of the women in the first-year class were not even eligible to take any calculus or intermediate level statistics course. Moreover, all but five of the 20 majors at Berkeley in the early 1970s required either calculus or statistics. Women, then were crowding themselves into the remaining five fields (the humanities, music, social work, elementary education, guidance and counseling), not only because of sex-role socialization but because of math avoidance.

If math avoidance were the result only of poor guidance counseling at the secondary school level, then the solution would be relatively simple: just get the word out that the social sciences have become "mathematized" over the past two decades, that business requires at least a familiarity with operations research, and that almost every administrative job will involve some work with budgets, financial statements, and comparisons of rates of change. Then girls and women would flock to remedial math classes and the problem would soon be solved. The problem was far more serious--growing out of a culture that makes math ability a masculine attribute, that punishes women for doing well in math, and that soothes the slower math learner by telling her she does not have a "mathematical mind." It all adds up to math anxiety, of which math avoidance is but a symptom.

Math anxiety is an "I can't" syndrome, and whenever it strikes--for some as early as sixth grade, with word problems; for others, with the first bite of algebra; for still others, not until calculus or linear algebra or statistics, after a high school record of achievement in mathematics--it creates the same symptoms and response. "I can't do this. No amount of practice or trying will make it work for me. I never really understood math. I always memorized and got away with it. Now I've hit the level I always knew was there. I can't do it."

Once a person has become frightened of math, she or he begins to fear all manner of computations, any quantitative data, and words like "proportion," "percentage," "variance," "curve," "exponential." Some students think that a simple table in a history textbook, showing, say, yields of a crop, by year, is "mathematics," and therefore inaccessible. Unless the same information is presented in a series of declarative sentences, they are uncomfortable with it.

Math anxiety is a serious handicap. It is handed down from mother to daughter with father's amused indulgence. ("Your mother never could balance a checkbook," he says fondly.) Then, when an employer or a colleague recognizes it in an employee, she can be barred from any endeavor or new assignment by the threat that the new job will involve some work with "data or tables or functions."

What can be done about this syndrome? We at Wesleyan University in Connecticut are developing one project that may help cure the symptoms, if not the causes. With the assistance of a grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare) in Washington, D.C., we have opened a "Math Anxiety Clinic," for undergraduates and adults. It is intended to be a place where people who admit that they are unable to cope with their math problems can be diagnosed, tested, interviewed, and helped in a variety of ways, including therapy and counseling.

Since the problem seems to be emotional as well as cognitive, one-to-one discussion in a nonthreatening and supportive atmosphere is essential to the process--as is unhurried probing of the client's memories about how she first learned math in elementary school.

One student confessed in such a session never to have understood why, when fractions are multiplied (1/5 x 1/4, for example), the answer is always a still smaller fraction. It didn't fit with what she had been taught about multiplying as a way of increasing value. The question is a good one, yet she never had the courage to ask it because, like many female students, she felt so alienated in the math classroom that she was inhibited by a fear of appearing both too smart and too dumb. Or she assumed, incorrectly, that everyone else in the class understood the issue that was bothering her, and, embarrassed, she hid her question.

The classroom is not the sole locus for math learning. The child who is precocious in math comes in with some previous understanding; other children get help at home. Since from seventh grade on, girls tend to go for help in all subjects to their mothers (and boys to their fathers), it is likely that the mother's math problems are directly passed on to her daughters, and she cannot give them the help they require.

Another explanation is that the ability to do math beyond computations is correlated with the ability to do spatial relations. Spatial relations tests usually show two- or three-dimensional objects in one view and require that another view of the same object be "visualized." Females at all ages tend to do more poorly than males in spatial relations. It is possible that boys are better because they play with building toys and get involved in taking apart and putting back together all manner of things, from broken toys to clocks and eventually automobiles. In the process, spatial relations ability may well be increased. But since spatial relations is not taught in school, there is no way for girls to get this experience.

This observation raises some interesting questions about the design and function of the elementary school curriculum. If girls come to school with more highly developed verbal skills than boys, then the verbally oriented elementary school curriculum would provide them with rather easy tasks, tasks that soon become boring. Boys, with poorer verbal skills, are being provided in elementary school with precisely what they need. Though the curriculum may be more difficult for them at the outset, they pick up much needed skills in elementary and junior high school, and are able to exceed females in general achievement by age 17. (In a recent longitudinal study of the school achievements of 900,000 children [*Time* magazine], it was pointed out that at age nine, girls and boys are about equal in all school subjects, but that by age 17 boys have far exceeded girls in all but creative writing and music.)

If there is some link between good spatial relations ability and math learning, then one of the objectives of a math anxiety clinic might be the teaching or perfecting of spatial relations ability. Lenore Blum, head of the mathematics department at Mills College in Oakland, California, an all-women's college, has had considerable success in a precalculus workshop where she has her students become familiar with graphic representations of algebraic functions. In this way, they become "fluent" in the new (to them) language of analytic geometry. Since this is done *before* the students go on to calculus, where competence in confronting these curves is a critical part of mastering the subject, they do much better in college math. In traditional calculus courses, the analytic geometry and the calculus are taught concurrently, making it doubly hard for women who may find the curves alone so off-putting that they never get to the calculus itself--and, worse yet, never understand what it is that got in their way.

Blum does not believe that the approaches to math anxiety need be either psychological or remedial. The Mills College course introduces new and exciting concepts related to the calculus and relies upon peer-taught workshops to provide individual help and a support system. Blum and her colleagues believe that anxiety can be substantially reduced if women and girls have at least one positive experience in learning math.

This kind of effort has rarely been undertaken before, possibly because math anxiety is primarily a woman's problem, and therefore unworthy of attention. Another reason is that there is a widespread social belief that mathematical aptitude is inborn, granted only to a few geniuses. Part of the work of a math clinic is to persuade learners, teachers, and those who make educational policy that "mathematical abilities are accessible by the majority, if properly taught and if accompanied by the right kinds of support."[1]

The psychological or emotional components of math anxiety are harder to pinpoint but should not be underestimated. Some of our clients are daughters of math professors or engineers, men who have talent and interest in mathematics. Are they trying too hard not to identify with their fathers? Others of our students are deeply fascinated by math and science, but go to great lengths to deny this interest because it is "masculine," or because it will make them too unusual. One woman student, who graduated a year ago, went through three years as an English major before taking her first science course, certain, as she admitted later, that she would be "hooked on" science if she ever "let herself" take one course. She was hooked indeed; she is now in medical school.

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[1] Lazarus, Mitchell. "Mathophobia: Some Personal Speculations," in The Principal (January/February, 1974).

Peer influence also is not to be discounted. In a very provocative brochure on "Math and Sex," written two years ago under the supervision of statistician John Ernest of the University of California at Santa Barbara, it is reported that through elementary school, girls and boys tend to think that their own sex does better in all subjects; by high school both boys and girls assume that boys do better in math. Moreover, when asked why they do poorly on a math exam, high school girls tend to attribute their failure to lack of ability, while high school boys (of the same capability) usually say they did not work hard enough. "The attitudinal patterns of both self-image and peer group," Ernest's team concluded, "are unfortunately reinforced by those of the teacher." Both female and male teachers believe girls do less well than boys in math, even when the female teacher herself may like and even have specialized in math.

Despite such assumptions, there is no known connection between the sex gene and "dyscalculia," an actual brain dysfunction in performing calculations (comparable to dyslexia, which prevents visual decoding of word symbols). Moreover, Mitchell Lazarus, a specialist in math learning at the Education Development Center in Newton, Massachusetts, notes that what Jerrold Zacharias of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology some years ago named "mathophobia" is very common in people who are fully capable of elementary arithmetic though they may dislike it.

Lazarus is particularly insightful in his description of how mathophobia develops (though he seems to be insufficiently sensitive to the special aspects of mathophobia in women):

> ...mathophobia can pass through a latency stage before becoming manifest...consider the plight of a high school student who has always relied on the memorize-what-to-do approach. Because his grades may have been satisfactory, his incipient problem may not be apparent to anyone, including himself; he may not even know that there is any other way to learn mathematics. But the time and effort that his approach demands will increase dramatically through high school, subjecting the student to a constantly increasing strain. Moreover, since it has now been some years since he last understood what he was doing, he is in no position to switch over to the more appropriate strategy of actually comprehending the material...he simply lacks the necessary knowledge.... When his grades finally drop, as they must, even his teachers are unlikely to realize that his problem is not something new, but has been in the making for years. And at this point, it is doubtful that casual, remedial work would accomplish much, because the student needs nothing less than a complete reeducation in mathemathics.

Others argue that without a complete reeducation in mathematics, little can be done for math anxiety. But we are still looking for simpler ways of unlearning poor early training and relearning arithmetic at a higher level of sophistication. Knowles Dougherty, a consultant to our project, believes that we should study Oriental-American children who, through their traditional games played at home and their facility with the abacus, which requires the learning of a table of simple division, are far more advanced in math concepts than other American children at the elementary school level.

Whatever the causes of math anxiety may be, the cure presupposes a highly specific diagnosis of an individual's problem, including an attempt to do a kind of "cognitive map" of the person. Such a "map" could indicate whether she or he might better learn math through words (highly verbal, low spatial, medium numerical); through pictures (highly spatial, low verbal, low numerical); or through numbers, that is, through a method suited to her or his own personal cognitive strengths and weaknesses. Imagine numbers being introduced as either:

One, two, three, four ...; or 1, 2, 3, 4 ...; or -, --, ---, ---- . . .

At Wesleyan, a considerable proportion of our resources are being put into the diagnostic aspect of math anxiety. Students talk about their associations with math ("How did you feel when you entered this room today?") and their last positive math experience. The client may balk at in-depth analysis, or resist a thorough reeducation ("I only want to learn enough to understand the demand curve in my introductory economics course. No more than that.") And the quit-rate also is high.

In addition to diagnosis, we offer "standard" remedial sessions, reviewing algebra for the most part, though the instructors are willing to go back to fractions, percents, and long division if necessary; and "nonstandard" remedial work, still in the design stages. It is here that some development in spatial relations ability, or game-playing with math concepts may take place. Somewhere along the line, math has got to become fun, as well as make sense.

There is some risk that in focusing on math anxiety in women, feminist educators may unintentionally support the prejudice and discrimination against women mathematicians. It should be understood that currently about 10 percent of the Ph.D.s in mathematics are earned by women. But there is no question that math anxiety is a significant handicap for most women, since nearly every important issue of the day has a strong mathematical component. From a feminist perspective, mathematical literacy is a way to demystify the world. We feel that if we could develop a cure for math anxiety and "bottle" it for women engaged in self-help activities, these women would show increased self-reliance and with it increased self-esteem.

* * *

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Sheila Tobias, Associate Provost of Wesleyan University, is codirector with Professor Robert Rosenbaum of the Math Clinic at Wesleyan University. The clinic is staffed by a learning disabilities counselor, Bonnie Donady, and Dr. Steven Shmurak, Jean Smith, and Susan Auslander.

THE NEW NEW MATH

A few programs have begun to concentrate on improving the attitudes and achievement of very young women *before* math anxiety takes hold. "Math for Girls" is an eight-week, discovery-oriented course for 6- to 14-year-old girls, conducted by Nancy Kreinberg and Rita Liff at the Lawrence Hall of Science, University of California, Berkeley, Calif. 94720.

Several one-day conferences and seminars aim to stimulate high school girls' awareness of the variety of math-related fields open to them. On October 23, 300 seventh- to twelfth-grade girls will participate in math and science workshops, discussions, and lectures that are the second in a series of such conferences at Mills College, Oakland, Calif. 94613.

The Mathematical Association of America has established a visiting lectureship program, "Women and Mathematics," geared to tenth-grade girls. Regional information can be obtained from Eileen L. Poiani, St. Peter's College, Jersey City, N.J. 07306.

Several colleges have either full curriculums or workshops to prepare women students for entry into the calculus sequence required for advanced work in science and math. Contact Professor Lenore Blum, Department of Math and Computer Science, Mills College, Oakland, Calif. 94613, for information about the "Women in Science" program there. Lillian Faderman, Assistant Vice President for Academic Affairs, California State University, Fresno, Calif. 93740, can provide information about that university's tutoring and counseling program. A "Discovery Course in Elementary Mathematics and Its Applications" is part of a pilot program directed by Alice Schafer, Mathematics Department, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass. 02181. The program's aim is to develop new models for teaching math.

Information about a one-week course or a week-end course for math-anxious women can be obtained from Ruth Afflack, Department of Mathematics, California State University, Long Beach, Calif. 90840. Information about an introductory math sequence for women is available from Professor Carolyn MacDonald, Physical Science Program, University of Missouri, Kansas City, Mo. 64110.

-- Nancy Kreinberg

"Influences on Program Selection"

VII. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL TRACE THE WAYS IN WHICH SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING AFFECTS CURRENT EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL OPTIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS.

D. **Objective**: Recognizing that currently boys exhibit more interest in mathematics and science, whereas girls exhibit more interest in language and literature, demonstrate the ways in which these early socialization patterns affect the selection of majors by undergraduate male and female students.

2. **Learning Strategy**:

Note to Leader:

You may choose to prepare a 10-minute presentation on the information in b. below as an alternative to participants' collecting the information.

Prior to workshop have participants do "homework" by examining programs in their institution that require mathematics as a prerequisite for admission and the sex and race distribution in those programs. Have participants also examine and list the programs which have various amounts of mathematics in the curriculum and look at the graduating class enrollment by sex and race. Have participants also examine the programs which emphasize language and literature and/or communication and look at the sex ratios in those programs.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Participants will bring information collected to their small groups and discuss their findings. Possible discussion questions are:

1) What did you discover that you did not know before?
2) How did math and science and/or language and literature courses affect your choice of college major, program planning or occupational choices?
3) When you were younger, what facilitating/inhibiting messages did you receive about course selection? Who gave you these messages?
4) What part did the messages play in your choice of classes?
5) In your current role how might you facilitate/inhibit the course selection of students?
6) What part, if any, did those messages play in your choice of classes?

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 25 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Data gathered from each institution; fact sheets; class enrollment figures; graduation figures
Attached article: "Math Anxiety" (Tobias, 1975); (See VII.D.1.)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will share information gathered and draw implications for their institutions as well as for their own career choices and those of their students. Participants will list three ways in which their socialization patterns affected their own program selection or program planning.

Goal VIII

PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Appreciate the variety of roles each person plays in relation to students.

   1. The Roles We Play

B. Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choice on the part of female and male students.

   1. Assumptions and Behaviors

   2. Student/Educator Interactions

   3. Interactions: A Role Play

   4. Student/Counselor Interactions

C. Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to promote free academic and vocational choices on the part of female and male students.

   1. Expanding Horizons

D. Identify textbook and other written and illustrative material used by workshop participants or others in their institution which stereotypes or excludes women or men.

   1. Analyzing Institutional Material

E. Specify the complex ways in which teachers, counselors, administrators, etc., may serve as successful role models or mentors for both sexes.

   1. Role Models and Mentors

F. Analyze ways in which career/vocational tests inhibit or facilitate non-sex-typed career development.

   1. Sex-Biased Tests

   2. Measuring Androgyny

E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

VIII.A.1.

"The Roles We Play"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

A. Objective: Appreciate the variety of roles each person plays in relation to students.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This exercise could be used in combination with VIII.B.2., "Student/Educator Interactions."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have each participant individually list the roles that she/he has with students.

c. From these individual lists, have the large group draw up a master list.

Note: Examples of roles: teacher, counselor, friend, peer, confidant, parent, mentor, adviser, teaching assistant

Minimum Time Required: 20 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Paper and pens, blackboard or large sheets of newsprint

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five roles they play with students.

E SR-M
CD-L TL-L/M

VIII.B.1.

"Assumptions and Behaviors"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

B. Objective: Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choice on the part of female and male students.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Form into small groups. Have groups identify sex-biased behaviors that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choice on the part of female and male students. Are these sex-biased behaviors applicable to all racial groups and economic classes?

c. Share results in large group. Discuss assumptions that underlie some of the behaviors. (If time permits, discuss validity of the assumptions, referring back to the myths and facts discussed in earlier sessions.)

d. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

a. Divide participants into small groups. Have half the groups make a list of behaviors that inhibit. Have the other half make a list of attitudes and assumptions about females and males. (Put on newsprint.)

b. Combine a "behavior" group with an "attitudes and assumptions" group.

c. Share and summarize in large group.

d. Examples of sex-biased behaviors:

1) Using sex-biased language.
2) Ignoring responses from female students in class.
3) Making jokes about male dancers, etc.
4) Describing a female student as unrealistic because she wants to be a physicist: "She'll never use her training."
5) Counseling a young man to consider administration rather than elementary teaching.
6) Counseling a young woman to drop out of college and take care of her family instead of helping her explore options.

e. Examples of sex- and race-biased assumptions:

1) Women's primary responsibility is to their husbands and children.
2) Women waste their education.
3) Women's options are not as valuable as men's.
4) Administration is a masculine role, teaching a feminine one.
5) Blacks make good dancers and athletes.
6) Asian-American women make good wives.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 50-60 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint and magic markers
References: Bem (1975); Dickerson (1974); Mishler (1975); Oliver (1975); Schlossberg (1974); Thomas and Stewart (1971); Rosenthal (1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five examples of sex- and race-biased behavior that inhibits academic and vocational choice for females and males of all races and economic classes.

"Student/Educator Interactions"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

B. Objective: Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choice on the part of female and male students.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to have participants look at the amount of time they spend respectively with female and male undergraduate students to find out if there are sex differences in the percent of time and type of activity. (Of course, the ratios must be adjusted depending on the total absolute number of females and males the person would normally have contact with.)

If the group seems open enough, it would be good to bring up the sensitive issue of sexual exploitation of students as an inhibitor to career development.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have each individual outline a typical week's work activities. Have them list what percent of time is spent interacting (1) with female students and (2) with male students. They should include female and male minorities.

c. Share with large group. Address such questions as:

   1) Is the time spent disproportionate to the ratio of female-male students?
   2) Is more emphasis given to encouraging men to consider long-range plans--more education, a series of positions, graduate school, or any other high-achieving future plans?
   3) What is the nature of the interaction between female students and male professors? Male students and male professors? Other combinations?
   4) What effects do these interactions have on the students' career development?

Alternative Strategy:

a. Using the data from VIII.A.1., "The Roles We Play," split the group into threes, and have each take a different role. Make two lists--expectations that you have of students in that role, and expectations for yourself in that role. Then, put minus signs beside those expectations hindering career development and plus signs beside those facilitating career development.

b. Discuss what percent of time participants play each role with females. With males. Are there racial differences?

c. Next make columns for female and male. List which roles are played with each on a dimension from least frequent to most frequent. Are the relations to the same sex different from relations with the other sex?

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed: none

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will analyze in a short essay percent and quality (type) of time spent with their female and male students.

"Interactions: A Role Play"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

B. Objective: Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choices on the part of female and male students.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

The suggested scenario is just one possibility for a role play. Other role plays might be developed that are appropriate for your setting.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Role play the following scenario:

> A male undergraduate student in a demanding course has complained to the chairperson of Department X that female students claim far more of the male instructor's time and attention outside of formal class sessions than he and other male students are able to secure; he claims that women, by that fact, enjoy a relative advantage in tutorial guidance.

c. Discuss strategies for dealing with this situation.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30 minutes

Resources Needed:

Reference: Pendergrass (1966)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will list two alternative strategies for responding to a male student's complaint of sex discrimination.

"Student/Counselor Interactions"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

B. Objective: Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to inhibit free academic and vocational choice on the part of female and male students.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to leader:

See guidelines on conducting role plays in introductory section of this packet.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Role play a counseling session, emphasizing the subtleties of inhibiting behavior (for example, response of "ah-huh" when the adviser disagrees and more verbal supportive statements when adviser or counselor agrees with student's attitudes and behaviors). Then role play facilitating non-sex-typed advising.

c. Role play with a female student, then a male student. (Use different races.)

d. If available, a videotape of counseling/advising interview showing inhibiting or facilitating behavior could be used.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 30-45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Reference: Rosenthal (1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Given a case study (written or video), participants will identify three inhibiting and three facilitating counselor/adviser behaviors.

"Expanding Horizons"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

C. Objective: Understand those attitudes and activities that tend to promote free academic and vocational choices on the part of female and male students.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the activity.

b. In small groups, have participants identify behaviors that tend to promote free academic and vocational choices on the part of female and male students of all races. Brainstorm these and record on newsprint.

Examples:

1) Encouraging a young woman to look at health careers including a range of options, not just medical technology or nursing: "Have you thought of being a doctor?"

2) Encouraging women with artistic interests in direction of design to consider architecture, graphic communications, etc., in addition to crafts.

3) Encouraging a young man to pursue his hesitant interests in the arts.

c. Report to large group.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40-50 minutes.

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint and magic markers
References: Birk (1974); Birk, Cooper & Tanney (1973); House & Katzell (1975); Davis (1973); Oliver (1975); Rosenthal (1973); Kundsin (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five attitudes and behaviors that promote fair sex-typed academic and vocational choice and give the assumption underlying each one.

"Analyzing Institutional Material"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT

D. Objective: Identify textbook and other written and illustrative material used by workshop participants or others in their institution which stereotypes or excludes women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy asks participants to bring in their own material for evaluation for sex bias. The leader may wish, depending on the group, to bring in materials. Some groups may be defensive about criticizing their own materials.

With several days' advance notice, ask participants to bring materials from their own institution for analysis and evaluation. These materials might include textbooks, supplementary readings, syllabi and outlines, bulletins, memoranda, counseling guidelines, position papers, etc.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants generate a list of criteria for evaluating materials for sex bias, race bias, and class bias. Using the criteria list, have small groups critique materials. Share in large group.

c. Summarize. (If time permits, have participants revise the material.)

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint, magic markers, examples of materials for critiquing
Attached articles: "A Woman Is Not a Girl and Other Lessons in Corporate Speech" (Hogan, 1975) (See VI.E.1.)
Guidelines for Improving the Image of Women in Textbooks (Scott, Foresman, 1974) (See VI.E.3.)
Reference: Ernest (1976); Harway (1977); Schneider and Hacker (1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Given examples of sexist material, participants will reword it in a nonsexist format.

"Role Models and Mentors"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

E. Objective: Specify the complex ways in which teachers, counselors, administrators, etc., may serve as successful role models or mentors for both sexes.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader may wish to share all or part of the Sheehy article with participants.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have small groups list successful role models or mentors in their society and in their institutions.

Discuss:

1) What are the characteristics of these people? Are they androgynous?

2) Can women be role models for men? Can men be role models for women? If so, how? How about mentors?

3) How do these people manifest nonsexist attitudes and behaviors?

4) How important do you think role models are? Mentors?

5) Can a "feminine" female be a role model? Can a "masculine" male be a role model? How about mentor?

6) Can white women be role models for minority women and vice versa? How about mentors?

7) Can minority women be role models for white men? How about mentors?

8) What specific functions (behaviors) do role models serve? Mentors? Focus on the learning of technical, content-oriented skills as one aspect, and the lifestyle as another.

c. Share and summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Attached article: "The Mentor Connection" (Sheehy, 1976. See VII.B.4.)
References: Kundsin (1974); Elliot (1973); Almquist and Angrist (1971); Tidball (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will specify three ways in which teachers, counselors, and administrators may serve as role models and mentors for women and men.

E SR-M
CD-M TL-L

VIII.F.1

"Sex-Biased Tests"

VIII. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT.

F. Objective: Analyze ways in which career/vocational tests inhibit or facilitate non-sex-typed career development.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy can be used with VIII.F.2., "Measuring Androgyny." In explaining the goals and objectives of the strategy, the leader may wish to point out that there are many divergent views on sex bias in career interest measurement. It is important to know which tests are sex biased, to be able to critique tests for sex bias, and to be able to interpret these tests in a non-sex-biased manner in order to facilitate egalitarian attitudes and practices for career development. For an in-depth analysis of non-sex-biased use of career interest inventories the leader and participants are encouraged to review Sex Fairness in Career Guidelines: A Learning Kit (Stebbins, Ames, & Rhodes, 1976).

The leader should also have access to three of the most popular interest inventories and their respective manuals: the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey, Form DD (Kuder, 1971); the Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1972); and the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (Campbell, 1974). Ask participants to take these inventories prior to the session so that they have results available. Participants should also receive a copy of the handout "Summary of the Guidelines and Recommendations for Sex-Fair Use of Career Interest Inventories" (attached) prior to the session.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader leads a short class discussion on the points contained in the guidelines and recommendations handout.

c. Divide the large group into small groups (three to four persons). Have the groups select a recorder. Assign each group one of the three inventories to analyze according to the handout on guidelines and recommendations. Have the groups pay close attention to the sex-bias problems unique to race, socioeconomic background, education, and disability.

d. Have the recorders report their findings to the large group. The content of the group reports should be used to facilitate further discussion of the use and interpretation of career interest inventories.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour for each inventory taken
1 hour for discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Career interest inventories
Handout: "Summary of the Guidelines and Recommendations for Sex-Fair Use of Career Interest Inventories"
Attached Article: "Correlation with NIE's 'Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories'" (Diamond, 1975)
References: Diamond (1975); Birk (1974); Dewey (1974); Weisstein (1973); Constantinople (1973); Cole and Hanson (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify four examples of sex bias in testing measures (other than sex-biased language).

SUMMARY OF THE GUIDELINES AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SEX-FAIR USE OF CAREER INTEREST INVENTORIES

Guideline 1: Items involving occupational titles should either use gender-neutral terms or present both male and female titles. The generic "he" or "she" should also be avoided.

Guideline 2: Item pools should reflect experiences and activities equally familiar to both sexes, or at least be balanced in terms of the numbers of items favored by each sex. The balancing should be achieved within individual scales, within the limitations imposed by validity considerations.

Guideline 3: The same interest inventory form should be used for both males and females unless it is shown empirically that separate forms are more effective in minimizing sex bias.

Recommendations for Administering the Inventory

Recommendation 1: Administer career interest inventories only as part of a total program of career guidance.

Recommendation 2: Use an inventory that has a combined form for males and females wherever possible; if you must use an instrument with separate forms for males and females, try to administer both.

Guideline 4: Technical information should provide the rationale for either separate scales by sex or combined sex scales.

Guideline 5: Scores on all occupations and interest areas covered by the inventory should be given for both males and females, with the sex composition of the norm or criterion group -- i.e., whether male, female, or both -- for each scale clearly indicated.

Even if it is empirically demonstrated that separate scales are more effective in minimizing sex bias, thus justifying their use, the same vocational areas should be indicated in the report for each sex.

Furthermore, reporting of scores for one sex on scales normed or constructed on the basis of data from the other sex should be supported by evidence of validity.

Guideline 6: Technical materials should include information about how suggested or implied career options (i.e., options suggested by the highest scores on the inventory) are distributed for samples of typical respondents of each sex.

Guideline 7: Technical materials provided by the publisher should describe the efforts made in the inventory to eliminate sex bias and indicate how recently criterion groups, norms, and other relevant data for each occupation have been updated.

Guideline 8: Steps should be taken to investigate the validity of interest inventories for minority groups (differentiated by sex). Publishers should describe comparative studies and should clearly indicate whether differences have been found between groups.

Recommendations for Reporting Inventory Results

Recommendation 3: When scales cover different vocational areas for males and for females, scores on both sets of scales should be reported to insure that all vocational areas are covered.

Recommendation 3a: When both male and female scales cover the same occupational areas, primary focus should be placed on scores based on same-sex scales.

Recommendation 3b: In reporting scores on opposite-sex scales, focus more on the pattern of scores than on the intensity or level of scores.

Recommendation 3c: In reporting scores on opposite-sex scales, beware of spuriously high or low scores which may reflect sex-role stereotypes rather than basic interest patterns.

Recommendation 4: When an inventory provides two sets of scores -- one based on male norms -- both sets of scores should be reported, with the appropriate reference group clearly indicated.

Recommendation 5: Instruct clients to fill in the appropriate sex code, or no sex code, on their answer sheets to maximize the information reported to them.

Recommendation 6: When an inventory provides separate norms for special groups, scores should be provided based on those norms whenever appropriate, with the appropriate reference group(s) clearly indicated.

Guideline 9: Interpretive materials for test users and respondents (manuals, profiles, leaflets, etc.) should explain how to interpret scores resulting from separate or combined male and female norm or criterion groups.

Guideline 10: Where differences in validity have been found between dominant and minority groups (differentiated by sex), separate interpretive procedures and materials should be provided which take these differences into account.

Furthermore, interpretive materials for persons re-entering paid employment or education and persons changing occupations should give special attention to score interpretation. In the case of re-entry persons, particular attention should be given to the effects of years of sex-role stereotyping and family-career conflict, the norms on which the scores are based, and the options such individuals might explore.

Guideline 11: The interpretive materials should use gender-neutral terms and examples on both male and female occupational titles to avoid the impression that certain roles are sex-linked.

Guideline 12: Interpretive materials should point out the possible influences of environmental and cultural factors on the vocational interests and choices of men and women. Manuals should recommend that the inventory be accompanied by an orientation for clients dealing with these factors.

Guideline 13: The manual and interpretive materials should encourage both sexes to look at all relevant career and educational options. Also, myths regarding sex-biased or ethnic occupational stereotypes should be dispelled and user and respondent should explore experiences in new areas of interest.

Guideline 14: The user's manual should address possible user biases in regard to sex roles and their possible interaction with age, ethnic group, and social class, and should caution against transmitting these biases to the respondent or reinforcing the respondent's own biases. Case studies and examples presented in the interpretive materials should include men and women equally and, where applicable, include mature people as well as people from different ethnic and social groups.

Guideline 15: Both user's manuals and respondent's materials should make it clear that interest inventory scores provide only one kind of helpful information, and that this information should always be considered together with other relevant information in making any career decision. The possible biases of these variables should be taken into consideration as well.

Recommendations for Interpreting Inventory Results

Recommendation 7: Scores on occupational and basic interest inventories should be used to locate broad interest areas.

Recommendation 8: Look at all career and educational options within a broad interest area, not just those associated with one sex group.

Recommendation 9: In interpreting the results of career guidance inventories, orient clients to the possible influence of sex bias on their scores.

Recommendation 10: In interpreting the results for persons with special backgrounds or interests, the counselor should be aware of the possible influence of age, ethnic group, and social class, in combination with sex bias, on the respondents' scores.

Recommendation 11: In helping clients make vocational choices, utilize all available information, remembering that inventory results represent only one source of information about a client.

Recommendation 12: Inventory results should be used to encourage freedom of choice and expand the range of options available to the client for consideration, irrespective of gender.

CORRELATION WITH NIE'S "GUIDELINES FOR ASSESSMENT OF SEX BIAS AND SEX FAIRNESS IN CAREER INTEREST INVENTORIES"[1]

In 1974 the National Institute of Education, an agency of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, developed a set of unofficial "Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories," which were published in 1975. (See Diamond, 1975). These "guidelines" are reproduced here in italic type; following each is a description, in roman type, of comparable treatment in the SVIB-SCII.

I. THE INVENTORY ITSELF

A. The same interest inventory form should be used for both males and females unless it is shown empirically that separate forms are more effective in minimizing sex bias.

A. The SVIB-SCII uses the same booklet and report form (profile) for both men and women.

B. Scores on all occupations and interest areas covered by the inventory should be given for both males and females, with the sex composition of norms--that is, whether male, female, or combined-sex-norms--for each scale clearly indicated.

B. On all of the scales on the profile, scores are given for all respondents, whether male or female. In some cases, the respondent is scored against people of just his or her own sex; in some, against a combined-sex sample; and in others, against both single-sex and combined-sex samples, by means of separate scores. In each case, the composition of the norm group or groups is clearly indicated.

C. Insofar as possible, item pools should reflect experiences and activities equally familiar to both females and males. In instances where this is not currently possible, a minimum requirement is that the number of items generally favored by each sex be balanced. Further, it is desirable that the balance of items favored by each sex be achieved within individual scales, within the limitations imposed by validity considerations.

C. The SCII items are probably equally *familiar* to both sexes, since they comprise relatively common occupations, activities, school subjects, and the like. They are not all equally *popular* with the two sexes, however, since the sexes differ substantially in the activities they say they enjoy.

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[1] From: Diamond, E. Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement. © 1975. National Institute of Education.

The items for the SCII were selected from the combined item pools of the earlier men's and women's booklets. The factors considered in item selection are discussed in detail in Chapter 3 of this *Manual*. The most important factor is item validity--that is, whether or not the items discriminate between people in different occupations.

There are 325 items in the SCII; of these, 20 are forced-choice items--such as "Choose the item on the left or the item on the right"--where the concept of popularity is irrelevant. Of the remaining 305 items, seven (2 percent) show no differences between the Men-in-General and Women-in-General samples, 133 items (44 percent) draw the "Like" response more often from men than from women, and 165 items (54 percent) are favored more often by women.

The same trend can be seen in the items showing the greatest difference between the sexes. Of the 26 items showing a 30-percent difference or more--a *very* large difference--five are favored more by men, 21 are favored more by women. To the extent that the inventory is biased at the item level, it is biased slightly in favor of women.

Because the items are reasonably well-balanced overall in terms of popularity between the sexes, no attempt has been made to assure balance in each individual scale. Instead, we have selected those items that are most valid for each scale, letting the sex differences fall where they may. In general, the Occupational Scales are fairly well-balanced; in those scales, men are compared with men, women with women, and the sex differences are minimized. Both the General Occupational Themes and the Basic Interest Scales are unisex; that is, men and women respond to the same scale items.

D. Occupational titles used in the inventory should be presented in gender-neutral terms (for example, letter carrier instead of mailman), or both male and female titles should be presented (for example, actor/actress).

D. The SCII items are presented in gender-neutral terms.

E. Use of the generic "he" or "she" should be eliminated throughout the inventory.

E. The words "he" and "she" do not appear in the inventory, or on any of the answer sheets or profiles.

II. TECHNICAL INFORMATION

A. Technical materials provided by the publisher should describe how and to what extent these guidelines have been met in the inventory and supporting materials.

A. This Appendix is a discussion of how the guidelines have been met by the SVIB-SCII. Other chapters and sections of this *Manual*, as well as the remarks on the profile, address the same issues.

B. Technical information should provide the rationale for either separate scales by sex or combined-sex scales (for example, critical differences in male-female response rates that affect the validity of the scales vs. similarity of response rates that justify combining data from males and females into a single scale).

B. Chapter 7 of this *Manual* is devoted entirely to a discussion of the rationale for using separate Occupational Scales for men and women; essentially, it presents data showing how the sexes differ in item responses and reports how these differences are accommodated.

C. Even if it is empirically demonstrated that separate inventory forms are more effective in minimizing sex bias, thus justifying their use, the same vocational areas should be indicated for each sex.

C. The SCII does not use separate inventory forms.

D. The sex composition of the criterion and norm groups should be included in descriptions of these groups. Furthermore, reporting of the scores for one sex on scales normed or constructed on the basis of data from the other sex should be supported by evidence of validity--if not for each scale, then by a pattern of evidence of validity established for males and females scored on pairs of similar scales (male-normed and female-normed for the same occupation).

D. The sex composition of the SCII criterion and norm groups is included in the group descriptions (Appendix C) and on p. 49 of this *Manual*.

The validity of each scale rests upon the availability of empirical data. Our research demonstrates that valid scales developed for males are not just as valid for females, and vice versa, but for some occupations (for example, farmer) a scale for just one of the sexes must suffice for now, if we are to offer any useful scale at all, and with proper reporting such scales can always be used without discriminating effect. To the extent that samples of adequate size can be assembled, we are developing new scales where one sex is not currently normed--for example, male secretaries, female Air Force officers.

The scores on scales developed for the opposite sex do seem to be valid in a rank-order sense: for example, women who score high on a male scale are more interested in that occupation than women who score low on that same scale. Problems of interpretation remain, but they are lessened on the one hand by scoring all testees on all scales on the profile, and on the other by downplaying the importance of other-sex scales by graphically plotting only the appropriate-sex scales. This approach thus meets the guidelines' suggestion of presenting all scale scores, while at the same time cautioning the user that some scales have to be treated differently from others. Experience to date indicates that this approach is adequate; only when field research yields more useful data can it be looked upon as completely satisfactory.

In addition, several changes have been made on the profile to emphasize the General Occupational Themes and Basic Interest Scales, which are identical for both sexes, and, through them, to help the counselor and respondent understand better the meaning of the empirically derived Occupational Scales.

E. Criterion groups, norms, and other relevant data (for example, validity, reliability, item-response rates) should be examined at least every 5 years to determine the need for updating. New data may be required as occupations change or as sex and other characteristics of persons entering occupations change. Test manuals should clearly label the date of data collection for criterion or norm groups for each occupation.

E. The SVIB has undergone constant evolution since it was first published in 1927, and it continues to evolve. Major revisions of various portions of the system occurred in 1933, 1938, 1966, 1969, and 1974 (year of publication of the SVIB-SCII). In addition, new scales have been added regularly, and older ones dropped or modified. This *Manual* reports the dates of all data collection and establishment of norm groups (see Appendix C and p. 49 of this *Manual*). Research continues, on a sustained, systematic basis, to develop new criterion groups, new norms, new parallel scales, and the bases for combined groups and scales. In general, however, the characteristic patterns of interests in occupations seem to change very little over time (see Campbell, 1971, p. 315).

F. Technical materials should include information about how suggested or implied career options (such as options suggested by the highest scores on the inventory) are distributed for samples of typical respondents by each sex.

F. This *Manual* reports the distributions of scores for both Men- and Women-in-General on all scales, which is the information necessary to know the frequencies of suggested options to both sexes.

G. Steps should be taken to investigate the validity of interest inventories for minority groups (differentiated by sex). Publishers should describe comparable studies and should clearly indicate whether differences were found between groups.

G. Such data as are available suggest that there are no differences between ethnic groups in measured interests. For example, Barnette and McCall (1964) found no ethnic differences in measured interests between the races among boys in craft-type curricula in New York schools; Borgen and Harper (1973) found no ethnic differences in measured interests among National Merit finalists; and Whetstone and Hayles (1975, p. 109) concluded: "The difference in the effectiveness of using the SVIB with black college men and with white college men appears to be small (if any)."

In an interesting unpublished 1967 study of 13,000 North Carolina high school students--split roughly 55-45 between ninth and twelfth graders, roughly 50-50 male-female, and roughly 20-80 black-white--students filled in a long biographical inventory concerned with two measures of interest, reading and science. Highly significant differences were found between the sexes on both scales. No significant differences were found between the blacks and the whites. The figures for the twelfth graders were not quite so startlingly identical as those for the ninth graders, but the same general pattern held--no important, consistent racial differences. In this study, as in every other study known to us, the data suggest that whereas sex is an important issue in the norming of measures of interest, race is not.

III. INTERPRETIVE INFORMATION

A. The user's manual provided by the publisher should describe how and to what extent these guidelines have been met in the inventory and the supporting materials.

A. This Appendix to the *Manual* describes how the guidelines have been met in the SVIB-SCII materials.

B. Interpretive materials for test users and respondents (manuals, profiles, leaflets, etc.) should explain how to interpret scores resulting from separate or combined male and female norms or criterion groups.

B. The interpretive materials given in this *Manual* in various chapters (particularly Chapter 10 and pp. 67-68 of Chapter 6), as well as the interpretive comments on the reverse sides of the student's and counselor's copies of the profile, discuss the interpretation of scales based on combined-sex samples (the General Occupational Themes and Basic Interest Scales) and cross-sex norms (the Occupational Scales).

C. Interpretive materials for interest-inventory scores should point out that the vocational interests and choices of men and women are influenced by many environmental and cultural factors, including early socialization, traditional sex-role expectations of society, home-versus-career conflict, and the experiences typical of women and men as members of various ethnic and social-class groups.

C. This has been done on the back of the profile and in Chapter 10.

D. Manuals should recommend that the inventory be accompanied by orientation dealing with possible influences of factors in C above on men's and women's scores. Such orientation should encourage respondents to examine stereotypic "sets" toward activities and occupations and should help respondents to see that there is virtually no activity or occupation that is exclusively male or female.

D. This has been done in Chapter 10.

E. Interpretive materials for inventories that use homogeneous scales, such as health or mechanical, should encourage both sexes to *look at* all *career and educational options, not just those traditionally associated with their sex group, within the broad areas in which their highest scores fall.*

E. The appropriate comments appear both on the reverse side of the profile and in Chapter 10.

F. Occupational titles used in the interpretive materials and in the interpretation session should be stated in gender-neutral terms (for example, letter carrier instead of mailman) or both male and female titles should be presented (for example, actor/actress).

F. All occupational titles in the SCII booklet, *Manual*, and interpretive materials are in gender-neutral terms.

G. The written discussions in the interpretive materials (as well as all inventory text) should be stated in a way that overcomes the impression now embedded in the English language that (a) people in general are of the male gender and (b) certain social roles are automatically sex-linked.

G. We have been careful to avoid the general use of "he" or "his," and to avoid suggesting that all people are male. The writing has been carefully screened to eliminate obvious or subtle sex-linked themes.

H. The user's manual (a) should state clearly that all jobs are appropriate for qualified persons of either sex, and (b) should attempt to dispel myths about women and men in the world of work that are based on sex-role stereotypes. Furthermore, ethnic occupational stereotypes should not be reinforced.

H. This *Manual* states that all jobs are appropriate for qualified persons of either sex. Ethnic occupational stereotypes are not mentioned in any way.

I. The user's manual should address possible user biases in regard to sex roles and to their possible interaction with age, ethnic group, or social class, and should caution against transmitting these biases to the respondent or reinforcing the respondent's own biases.

I. This issue is dealt with both in Chapter 7 and in Chapter 10, where we have tried to emphasize the benefits of full occupational exploration for both sexes. The inventory has long been used with all ages and all social classes, and no reports of bias on these dimensions have ever been noted.

J. Where differences in validity have been found between dominant and minority groups (differentiated by sex), separate interpretive procedures and materials should be provided that take these differences into account.

J. No differences have been found between dominant and minority groups in vocational interests; consequently, separate materials are not necessary.

K. Interpretive materials for respondent and user should encourage exploratory experiences in areas where interests have not had a chance to develop.

K. This *Manual* (especially Chapter 10) and the interpretive materials emphasize the need for such exploratory experiences.

L. Interpretive materials for persons reentering paid employment or education and persons changing careers or entering postretirement careers should give special attention to score interpretation in terms of the effects of years of stereotyping and home-career conflict, the norms on which the scores are based, and the options such individuals might explore on the basis of current goals and past experiences and activities.

L. Special interpretive comments for reentering people and others seeking second careers can be found in Chapter 10.

M. Case studies and examples presented in the interpretive materials should represent men and women equally and should include but not be limited to examples of each in a variety of nonstereotypic roles. Case studies and examples of mature men and women and of men and women in different social class and ethnic groups should also be included where applicable.

M. The case studies in Chapter 10 include men and women equally. Social class and ethnic representation have not been specially treated, since there are no data to suggest that these characteristics are related to SCII scores.

N. Both user's manuals and respondent's materials should make it clear that interest-inventory scores provide only one kind of helpful information, and that this information should always be considered together with other relevant information--skills, accomplishments, favored activities, experiences, hobbies, influences, other test scores, and the like--in making any career decision. However, the possible biases of these variables should also be taken into consideration.

N. For years, the SVIB-SCII *Manual* and its predecessors have emphasized that the inventory should not be used blindly, that other information should also be used in making occupational decisions. Those warnings appear in this *Manual* and in all of the interpretive materials.

E SR-H
CD-M TL-M

VIII.F.2.

"Measuring Androgyny"

VIII. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL BECOME AWARE OF THE IMPACT WHICH THEIR BEHAVIOR CAN HAVE ON THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS AND CHOICES OF STUDENTS WITH WHOM THEY INTERACT IN VARIOUS PROFESSIONAL ROLES.

F. **Objective**: Analyze ways in which career/vocational tests inhibit or facilitate non-sex-typed career development.

2. **Learning Strategy**:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants complete VIII.F.1., "Sex-Biased Tests."

c. Add discussion of masculinity-femininity measures and contrast them to the new androgyny measures. (You might have them take an androgyny test and an M-F test so they could more readily see the difference.)

d. Summarize.

Note: The old M-F tests assumed a dichotomized personality dimension on sex roles, that is, a certain level of masculinity was related to a certain level of femininity; they were not independent of each other. With androgyny measures, one can have equal levels of femininity and masculinity or any other combination; they are independent of each other.

Example:

Old M-F Scale:

Femininity — Masculinity

Androgyny:

Low — High
Femininity

Low — High
Masculinity

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 - 2 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Test examples
References: Bem (1975); Bem (1975); Constantinople (1973);
Strahan (1975); Bem (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Given examples of tests, participants will be able to critique them for sex bias.

or

Participants will be able to give six examples of sex bias in measurement with explanations.

Goal IX

PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Identify institutional policies which allocate differing sums for men's and women's athletics.

   1. Equality in Athletics

B. Detail the ways in which differential financing of men's and women's athletics has impact upon the learning environment and the future choices for male and female students.

   1. Impact of Policy Change

C. Identify ways in which requirements for full-time attendance in education programs inhibit the free choice of women and men.

   1. Limitations of Full-Time Requirements

D. Recognize the need to examine hiring practices within their institution and how such practices de facto work against the achievement of women.

   1. Institutional Hiring Practices

   2. The New College President

   3. Institutional Benefits: Facilitators or Inhibitors?

E. Understand the recent and pending federal and state legislation regarding sex discrimination in education and career development of women and men.

   1. Sex Discrimination and the Law

F. Identify the advantages likely to accrue when institutions shift away from sex stereotyping to programs which are liberating for both women and men.

   1. Rewards for Ending Sex Bias

G. Recognize the impact of official and unofficial institutional publications on career choice and sex-role attitudes.

   1. Catalogs as Influencers

"Equality in Athletics"

IX. **Goal:** PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

A. **Objective:** Identify institutional policies which allocate differing sums for men's and women's athletics.

1. **Learning Strategy:**

Note to Leader:

The lecture for the strategy could be done by staff members, student representatives, or the head of women's athletics from a local college or university.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have lecture presented on women's athletics. In the lecture, the speaker identifies policies and practices that have been established to date in order to create an allocation of equal sums of money for men's and women's athletics. Lecturer identifies problem areas, e.g., where are the "stoppers" to equal allocations? A contrast is drawn between policies established to date and policies and practices of a decade ago.

c. Workshop participants are formed into small discussion groups to discuss the following questions (groups should choose a recorder):

1) What policies/practices of a decade ago continue to be "stoppers" to equal allocations today? Why is this so?

2) What points did the speaker make that reflect practices/policies at your (participants') institution?

3) Brainstorm ways to reduce or eliminate "stoppers" the speaker identified. Evaluate ideas brainstormed and choose two that in your judgment are the best.

4) What role does sports play in American society? To what extent does it reflect the values of the culture? How are females and males socialized in regard to sports? Include differences due to race and sex.

d. The recorder for each small group then reports to the workshop and the guest lecturer on the two "best" ways to reduce or eliminate "stoppers." A list is developed, and later in the workshop copies are distributed to workshop participants (e.g., the next day).

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Resources: Prior to the workshop, secure funds for and commitment from a local area speaker

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three policies and practices that the lecturer and/or their discussion group identified.

"Impact of Policy Change"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

B. Objective: Detail the ways in which differential financing of men's and women's athletics has impact upon the learning environment and the future choices for male and female students.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Participants in the workshop form into small groups of seven to eight each with heterogeneity of sexes wherever possible. Problem is given:

> Your college/vocational institution is required by law to reverse its current athletic program funding so that women receive much more than men for sports, both varsity and intramural. What do you think would happen within the learning environment to:
>
> 1) the curriculum
> 2) the "image" of the college
> 3) men who are attending
> 4) women who are attending
> 5) the athletic department and staff
> 6) the activities program
> 7) academic standards

c. Groups list the impact predicted on each of the above for (1) next year and (2) five years from now, assuming such a funding program were to continue. Are any of the predicted outcomes similar to outcomes from present disparities? What are the possible implications of disparate funding on career options and choices of students in these institutions?

d. In large group, small groups then share results for one master list. (One group presents its entire list and others add variables or items not included in the first list.)

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed: None

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will give two examples of the ways in which differential financing of men's and women's athletics has impact upon the learning environment and the future choices of female and male students.

"Limitations of Full-time Requirements"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

C. Objective: Identify ways in which requirements for full-time attendance in education programs inhibit the free choice of women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants discuss limitations of full-time attendance "as if" they are women with many other commitments. Questions to consider are:

1) What do I do about inadequate day-care facilities?
2) Do I need an income while attending school. How do I combine work, family, and/or school?
3) How do I decide what my priorities are (e.g., I may have to give up something to go to school full time)?
4) Do I have support (economic and personal) to change my lifestyle if this represents a change?
5) How do I organize my time or lack of time?
6) What alternatives do I have for getting where I want to go if I can't or choose not to attend full time?
7) Is financial aid available if I am 1/2 time or less? loans? scholarships? part-time jobs?

c. If there are women in this position among participants, have them share their own experience in returning to school.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Discussion questions
Resources: Financial aid resource people
Attached article: "Can a Woman Be Liberated and Be Married, Too?" (Rivers, 1975) (See VI.F.1)
Reference: Howe (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Each group gives a "final" report indicating at least two ways in which full-time attendance in education programs inhibits the free choice of women to broaden their options.

"Institutional Hiring Practices"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

D. Objective: Recognize the need to examine hiring practices within their institution and how such practices de facto work against the achievement of women.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to workshop have participants investigate hiring practices at their institution.

Instructions: .

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Form small groups across institutions, pick a reporter, and discuss:

1) Who does the hiring (individual, search committee, etc.)? Who makes the final decision?

2) How is hiring done? How are "acting positions" filled? How does it happen that some high level administrative positions are exempt from affirmative action although all the part-time and temporary positions must follow affirmative action guidelines?

3) Where is the position advertised?

4) What are the criteria?

Next discuss what factors might contribute to maintaining the status quo. Some examples of these factors:

1) Advertising

2) Criteria not matched to job requirements but to white male applicants or the type of person who has typically filled the position.

3) Criteria written with a specific person in mind.

4) Not communicating to potential applicants that you are serious (if you are).

5) Not having commitment to affirmative action from the top (so people at other levels feel freer to ignore affirmative action.

6) What is the rate of retention of white and minority females? What might be reasons for a low rate?

c. Report to large group.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Information on institution's hiring policies and practices

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will obtain and make statements about employment practices and information from their institution. Participants will list two ways in which hiring practices often work against women.

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

IX.D.2.

"The New College President"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF THE INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

D. Objective: Recognize the need to examine hiring practices within their institution and how such practices de facto work against the achievement of women.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is designed to help participants begin to explore their unconscious attitudes and stereotypes about men's and women's roles. As it involves withholding information from the participants so that they do not know that they are responding to different stimuli, the activity should be undertaken only if the leader feels that the overall work of the group would not be adversely affected.

This strategy can be easily adapted to fit other situations. For example, information received by an adviser or counselor prior to seeing a client could be adapted to the strategy.

If the audience is a vo-tech school rather than a college, then substitute appropriate language.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide the group into subgroups of three persons each.

c. Read the following directions to the participants before passing out the worksheets:

> "You should not talk or share information with others while you make written responses on the worksheets which you will receive. I cannot answer questions while you work. You should work fairly quickly; first impressions are going to be the most helpful. Five minutes should be enough time to complete this part of the activity."

d. Pass out the worksheets. Each subgroup member will receive a different one of the three separate statements on a sheet of 8 1/2 by 11 paper. (The statements should be collated in groups of three beforehand so that distribution can be done quickly and without revealing that each member of the subgroup is receiving a different statement.)

e. The three statements are identical, except for the names. They read as follows:

> "D.A. Johnson (or Dorothy A. Johnson, or Donald A. Johnson) has just been hired as the new College President for Midwest University (20,000 students) and will be arriving to begin work on July 1."

> Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release.
>
> age _______________
>
> salary ____________________
>
> educational background ______________________________________
>
> physical description _______________________________________
>
> marital status and family information _______________________
>
> hobbies ____
>
> previous work experience ____________________________________

f. When everyone has finished, the subgroups should spend 10-15 minutes (1) sharing their responses to the worksheet items and (2) discussing their assumptions underlying the responses. Each subgroup should receive a copy of the "Discussion Questions for 'The New College President'" (attached).

g. The next 15-20 minutes should then be spent in the full group sharing information about the responses as well as feelings about the activity as a whole.

Alternative strategy:

An alternative mode of conducting the strategy would be to divide the large group into three subgroups of equal size, then distribute copies of one of the three press releases to each member of the subgroup so they can reach a consensus about the issues, and the results can be compared and contrasted by bringing the three subgroups back together to discuss their results. Comparison among the three college presidents therefore would not be made until the entire group had been reconvened. If the group is quite large, the first method would be preferable to this alternative method.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Pencils, pens
Optional: blackboard or newsprint to consolidate data

Handouts: "PRESS RELEASE" worksheets (three different ones)
"Discussion Questions for 'The New College President'"

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will respond to the questions about the college president and discuss their answers and the process with which they arrived at their answers. In addition, they will respond to the following statements:

The most important thing I learned as a result of this activity was:

____

____

____

During the discussion, I felt ______________________

____

____

Promotion practices that facilitate the career development of men are:

____

____

Promotion practices that facilitate the career development of women are: ______________________________________

____

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR "THE NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENT"

(1) What assumptions did you make about the three Presidents in the press release?

(2) What different kinds of data were elicited for each of the Presidents? What were the reasons for these differences?

(3) On which items would you have responded differently if you had received either of the two names? Why?

(4) What generalizations can you make about how this activity relates to the issue of sex-role stereotyping? Race stereotyping?

PRESS RELEASE

"The New College President"

D. A. Johnson has just been hired as the new President for Midwest University (20,000 + students), and will be arriving to begin work on July 1.

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release:

age:______________________ __________

salary:______________________________

educational background:______________________

physical description:______________________

marital status and family information:______________

hobbies:______________________________

previous work experience:______________________

____

____

____

____

____

540

PRESS RELEASE

"The New College President"

Dorothy A. Johnson has just been hired as the new President for Midwest University (20,000 + students), and will be arriving to begin work on July 1.

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release:

age: ____________________

salary: ____________________

educational background: ____________________

physical description: ____________________

marital status and family information: ____________________

hobbies: ____________________

previous work experience: ____________________

PRESS RELEASE

"The New College President"

Donald A. Johnson has just been hired as the new President for Midwest University (20,000 + students), and will be arriving to begin work on July 1.

Fill in responses to the following items which are to be included in the press release.

age:____________________

salary:____________________

educational background:____________________

physical description:____________________

marital status and family information:____________________

hobbies:____________________

previous work experience:____________________

E SR-M
CD-M TL-M

IX.D.3.

"Institutional Benefits: Facilitators or Inhibitors?"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

D Objective: Recognize the need to examine hiring practices within their institution and how such practices de facto work against the achievement of women.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Prior to the session, have each participant (one per institution) interview personnel director at her/his institution. Questions may include:

1) How and who decides promotions, and when?
2) If someone takes a leave, what happens to salary and rank when she/he returns?
3) Who decides who gets a leave and who may not? Are there institutional policies covering this area? Pregnancy leave? Vasectomy leave? Paternity leave? Parental leave?
4) Where does the salary schedule start for someone recently hired? (Is credit given for other experience and, if yes, who determines what experiences qualify?)
5) Is everyone that is hired expected to work as if they were a "single male" (no other responsibilities in their life - the job is everything)?

Leader may wish to hand out copies of article "Is the Top Rung Only for Single People?" from I.C.4.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have the person report findings in small groups. Discuss.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes plus interview time.

Resources Needed:

Materials: Data collected from interviews
Attached Article: "Is the Top Rung Only for Single People?" (See I.C.4., "For Single Only?")

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three ways in which promotion and leave practices often work against the achievement of women.

"Sex Discrimination and the Law"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

E. Objective: Understand the recent and pending federal and state legislation regarding sex discrimination in education and career development of women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This could best be done by inviting an expert in the area of sex discrimination and the law to make a presentation to the group. Sources for "experts" might be the local chapters of Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), college women's rights groups, American Association of University Women (AAUW), State Human Rights Department, college affirmative action offices, National Organization for Women (NOW), etc.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Expert would make presentation covering 1) present laws pertaining to sex discrimination in education, 2) their provisions (exclusions, enforcement powers, etc.), 3) implications for colleges and universities, 4) pending legislation and its possible implications, and 5) applicability of sex discrimination laws to minority females and males.

c. Question-and-answer session should follow.

d. Following the question-and-answer session, participants break into small groups and discuss implications for their own institutions. Report back to large group.

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1½ - 2 hours

Resources Needed:

References: Bender (1976) (See Federal laws and regulations prohibiting sex discrimination; Verheyden-Hilliard (1976); and Parr (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify and explain two laws relating to sex discrimination in education and apply them to their own institution or situation.

"Rewards for Ending Sex Bias"

IX. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

F. Objective: Identify the advantages likely to accrue when institutions shift away from sex stereotyping to programs which are liberating for both women and men.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is to help people become aware of the benefits in ending sex bias. Examples of advantages are: better utilization of the nation's talent, more stable marriages (fewer people will marry because of social pressures, economic security, etc.), increased personal flexibility (refer to section on androgyny). Men will be able to be fathers, rather than peripheral male shadows in the home. Women will be able to use their abilities outside the home. Men will be able to show tender emotions and admit weaknesses. Women choosing nontraditional career areas will not be viewed as deviants and put down for it. Society will have a better balance of competition and cooperation.

Obviously, what people will identify as advantages will depend on the perspective they hold, for example, on the result of dichotomized sex roles for a society. If they believe dichotomized sex roles lead to a more competitive, aggressive society, then they will see elimination of sex roles leading to a more balanced society.

BORN FREE videotape "Why Change?" (Goal X.A.1.) would be a good discussion stimulus to include with this activity.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants break into small groups, draw up lists of advantages for four areas in which a shift away from sex stereotyping in education and career expectations for women and men will have positive benefits. These areas are: 1) educational institutions, 2) young women, 3) young men, and 4) society in general. Are these shifts free of race bias?

c. Report lists to large group (not all lists).

d. Summarize.

Alternative strategy:

The above exercise could be done if there was ample time and it seemed worthwhile for this particular group. But the following exercise will probably be more feasible for most workshops: Break into small groups. Each group takes one of the four lists to do. Report to large group. Others add to lists. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1-1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint and magic markers
Videotape No. 9, "Why Change?" (Goal X.A.1.)
Video Viewers' Guide No. 9: Why Change?

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list two examples of advantages in eliminating sex bias for the following areas: educational institutions, women in general, men in general, and society.

E SR-M
CD-M TL-M

IX.G.1.

"Catalogs as Influencers"

IX. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL RECOGNIZE THE IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE DEVELOPMENTAL OPTIONS OF WOMEN AND MEN STUDENTS.

G. **Objective**: Recognize the impact of official and unofficial institutional publications on career choice and sex-role attitudes.

1. **Learning Strategy**:

Note to Leader:

The purpose of this exercise is to take a look at institutional policies and practices as reflected in the current vo-technical institute or college catalogs. Note that catalogs from single-sex institutions should not be used.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have each participant check one catalog for the following:

Ratio of female to male pictures (include racial ratios)
Categories of sex roles shown in the pictures
Language used
Women's sports vs. men's sports offered (type and amount)
Scholarships offered
Curriculum options

c. In small groups of five, have participants discuss and summarize their findings. Discussion could include questions such as "What would we feel if 90% of the pictures were females and all the pronoun references were female?"

d. Summarize in large group.

Alternative strategy:

After reviewing the catalogs, participants could be given material to construct a mini-catalog with the reverse of what they discovered. An empirical approach could be used. For example, if 85% of the pictures were of men, then 85% of the pictures would be of women. Then have people discuss their reactions. The point here would not be to put men down but to feel experientially what it is like to be invisible and excluded.

Minimum Time Required: 60-90 minutes.

Resources Needed:

Materials: Catalogs from institutions

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list five ways in which college or vo-tech catalogs may demonstrate sex bias.

Goal X

PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

Objectives and Learning Strategies

A. Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

   1. Why Change? (Videotape)
   2. Your Decision-Making Style
   3. Group Roles
   4. Looking at Change

B. Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.

   1. It's What You Know...
   2. It's Who You Know...

C. Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

   1. Sources of Power
   2. Creating Support for Change

D. Identify various strategies for making change in home institutions.

   1. Force-Field Analysis
   2. Reducing Resistance
   3. Assertiveness
   4. Situational Assertiveness

E. Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.

   1. Range of Change Strategies
   2. Commitment to Change

F. Apply a system model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

   1. How To Be a Process Helper
   2. Change Process: Small Is Beautiful
   3. Creating an Implementation Plan

P/E SR-L
CD-L TL-L

"Why Change?" (Videotape)

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Leader should read the viewers' guide and review videotape no. 9, "Why Change?", prior to using this strategy. It presents both female (Sunny Hansen) and male (Warren Farrell) perspectives on the changing roles of women and men. Essentially it provides a rationale and arguments for helping people deal with the reality of change. Workshop leaders should be sensitive to the level of awareness of the audience and readiness to deal with some of the issues presented.

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Introduce the tape as a tool to help people think about the changing roles of women and men in society and where they are in their attitudes about sex roles.

c. Read to the audience the segment from the viewers' guide on BORN FREE concepts and definitions or paraphrase.

d. Show the 30-minute color videotape "Why Change?"

e. Discuss in small groups of five to seven. Suggested discussion questions might include:

    1) What are some of the "important answers" women have found to the question "Why Change?" What limits have past roles put on their development?

    2) What are some reasons for men to change? What is the "payoff"?

    3) What are some of the disadvantages for both women and men in these changes?

    4) What does Warren Farrell see as the self-fulfilling trap as roles begin to change?

    5) Identify some of the major reasons given in the tape as to why people fear change. Do you agree or disagree?

    6) Given all the reasons why changes are needed, what are the most compelling reasons?

7) Regarding the various suggestions made in the tape, what specific things can teachers, counselors, administrators, parents, and other concerned persons do to shape change in more positive ways for human development?

8) What is the significance of Warren Farrell's comments on listening and self-listening?

9) Is there an external ideal which we seek in changing roles of women and men? What will be the long-range outcomes of these changes?

10) In what ways have you changed your own ideas about roles of women and men?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 5 minute introduction
30 minutes for tape
25 minutes for discussion

Resources: Videotape No. 9, "Why Change?"
Video Viewers' Guide No. 9: Why Change?

Outcome Criterion:

After viewing and discussing the tape each viewer will identify three of the most cogent reasons that women and men need to change their attitudes about career sex roles.

"Your Decision-Making Style"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

2. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants individually fill out handout.

c. In small groups discuss:

1) Do you see any patterns in the decisions you chose to list?
2) Are there any patterns in how you go about deciding?
3) Is your pattern of deciding different for different situations?
4) What implications does your pattern have for being a change agent?

d. Summarize in large group.

Minimum Time Required: 40 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Previous Decisions: How Did You Deal with Them?"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will write a paragraph analyzing their pattern of decision making and its implications for being a change agent.

PREVIOUS DECISIONS: HOW DID YOU DEAL WITH THEM?

It felt right.	The thoughts, attitudes, and feelings of others had great impact on what I decided.	Never thought about it before deciding. Took the first alternative.	Took the safest choice.	Allowed the decision to become so intolerable that I was forced into action.	Did what I wanted most without thinking of consequences.	Attached weights to what was the most desirable and most probable and decided.

PLEASE LIST BELOW:

1. Two decisions you made in the last year.
   a.
   b.
2. Two decisions you made in the past five years.
   a.
   b.
3. Three critical decisions you have made at any time in your life.
   a.
   b.
   c.

Do you see any patterns in the decisions you chose to list? Are there any patterns in how you go about deciding? Is that different for critical decisions?

"Group Roles"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze personal styles and modes of change.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This activity is composed of two parts.

Instructions:

I. Inhibitive Roles:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. The leader must first read a summary of Virginia Satir's book Peoplemaking, Chapter 5, pp. 59-79.

c. The leader should then prepare a summary and descriptions of the five roles people can assume in groups: placater, blamer, computer, distracter, and leveler.

d. The leader should present these concepts to the group in the following manner:

1) Choose volunteers from the audience and have them assume the appropriate body posture (in the chapter) before verbally describing the role to the group. This action makes the strategy fun and more palatable.

2) Describe only the four inhibitive roles for the group (placater, blamer, computer, and distracter). Be as animated and excited as possible about the exercise.

a) Form the members into groups (four members minimum, eight maximum).
b) Hand out "Dilemma I" to each member.
c) Have each participant silently choose one of the four inhibitive roles to play in group decision making.
d) Instruct each group that they must reach a consensus on the solution to Dilemma I while playing their role.
e) Role play (15 minutes).
f) Have each member stop role playing and assume the appropriate body posture for their role.

(Option: Continue role playing, with members silently changing roles for an added perspective.)

e. Process the first group decision-making attempt with the following questions:

1) How did you feel playing that role? How did others in the group react to you? Did this change over time? Why did you choose that role?
2) How did you feel toward others in the group?
3) Who was most significant in reaching your group decision?
4) How did you feel the role interfered with your normal means of communication?
5) If roles were switched, why (or why not) did you choose another role?

f. Next, present the role of the leveler, stressing the facilitative aspects of communicating in that manner.

II. Facilitative Roles:

a. With members in the same groups as previously, hand out "Dilemma II" and have them reach a group decision by consensus using the leveler role.

b. Process the decision making with the following questions:

1) What were the major differences from the role(s) you assumed in Dilemma I?
2) Was this comparable to your normal means of communication within groups? How was it similar/different? Was it comfortable/uncomfortable?
3) In what ways does leveling inhibit or facilitate communication?
4) Do you use different types of communication for different situations? Specify.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 - 2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Dilemmas"
"Summary of Virginia Satir's Four Levels of Response, Plus One More"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list the inhibitive/facilitative effects of assuming the group roles above in decision making.

*DILEMMAS**

I.

Anne and Allan Johnson were married four years ago just before their senior year of college. Since graduation Anne has taught at Jonesboro Elementary School and Allan has worked as an engineer at Ace Metals. Anne is excited because she has been asked to advance next year to be team leader for the three first grades at Jonesboro Elementary; but Allen has been told that for the second time he's in line to be transferred to another division of Ace Metals in another town. Allan can choose to stay at his present location or move, but he knows that his career with Ace Metals would be in jeopardy if he would turn down two transfers in a row. They know that teaching jobs are hard to get in the other town. There are no children at home or on the way.

Put yourself in their situation.

II.

Jane and John Whitehead and their twin preschoolers, Bill and Sally, live in Middleville. John studied business at State U. and has worked at Acme, Inc., for six years since graduation. He's making a good living for his family, his job is respectable, and he knows that he will probably continue to be successful at the job, if he chooses. However, despite all that, he is uneasy and uncertain about his job. There's nothing he can put his finger on except that he's not quite as satisfied as he had hoped he would be. He'd like to quit, take some time to think over his life, and go back to school (in some area yet to be determined). His quitting work will mean that Jane will have to get a job, which she hasn't had to do since before Bill and Sally were born, and they probably will have to lower somewhat their standard of living (at least for a while). If John goes back to school, they'll have to find day care for Bill and Sally.

Put yourself in Jane and John's situation.

*SUMMARY OF VIRGINIA SATIR'S FOUR LEVELS OF RESPONSE, PLUS ONE MORE**

In her book Peoplemaking, Virginia Satir describes four universal ways in which people react to stress if and when their egos are involved, or when their self-worth is somehow threatened, plus a fifth style which she sees as the ideal response style. The four patterns of communication that people use when self-esteem is involved and the threat to self-esteem is denied are: "placating, blaming, computing, and distracting" (Satir, 1972, p. 59).

Satir believes that the threat to self-esteem occurs only when the individual has a poorly developed sense of self-worth and so constantly uses other people's opinions as a measure of self-worth. When people depend upon others for definition of their self-worth, they are likely to say and do things which are untrue or not sincere, in an effort to gain approval.

When people avoid the truth in order to be accepted by and acceptable to others, they are sending double messages, with their words saying what is expected and the body and sounds sending negative messages. Those conflicting messages are picked up by the receiving person, causing a conflict in the interpretation and response. This double message creates conflict and disharmony between people.

When confronted with a double message, the four choices of response are: 1) placate, so the other person won't get angry; 2) blame, so none of the problem is yours; 3) compute abstractly, dealing objectively with the message to prove its unimportance and to establish your own self-worth; and 4) distract or ignore the message, for if you pretend it isn't there maybe it will disappear.

No matter what words we use, our bodies show our self-evaluation of our own worth. Satir's description of body stances that accompany the four types of response was devised to make people aware of the image others have of them when they are in one of the four modes. To role play the responses, the following descriptions should be helpful.

The placater, always agreeing, talks in an ingratiating manner, apologizing and trying to please. Imagine yourself kneeling, whining, pleading, and looking upward with one hand reaching up to a superior other person, saying "yes" to everything regardless of your own thoughts and feelings.

The blamer disagrees and accuses, acting like a superior dictator. Imagine yourself as a tyrannical boss with high blood pressure, standing over an inferior person with a finger pointed accusingly, as you criticize and call names, without ever giving a chance for an answer or a defense.

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*Summarized from Satir, Virginia, Peoplemaking, Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books, 1972, by Dolores Dege.

The computer speaks with impersonal calmness like a patient teacher explaining a fact to a small child. Imagine yourself with head raised haughtily, talking in the most complex words possible, with little motion and no emotion, choosing the correct words carefully and never risking a mistake.

The distractor says anything that makes no sense at all, being sure never to answer a question or make a point. Imagine yourself dizzy, out of tune with the words you and others are saying, speaking in a singsong voice with no meaning, and moving in no direction, spinning erratically. Ignore questions, wave your hands in all directions, brush off lint, examine your nails, and talk on your own topic which is totally unrelated to the present need, with your legs, arms, and hands moving haphazardly.

The use of any of these responses increases the user's low self-worth. A fifth response is Satir's answer to the four crippling responses. It is called "leveling" (Satir, 1972, p. 72). In this response, all parts of the body are in harmony with the words and voice. Communication is honest, and there is no loss of self-esteem. By using the leveling response, ruptures can be healed, impasses broken, and bridges between people built.

The leveling response may be an apology, a criticism, an evaluation, or an intellectual explanation. But whatever it is, it is real and the body and voice in consistency with the words will show that it is real. The messages are not mixed. People who are leveling are open and trustworthy and make you feel good in their presence.

Satir says that people are kept from leveling responses by seven fears or self-threats. Answers to the threats which will permit growth are:

FEARS	ANSWERS
1. Of making a mistake.	1. Mistakes are unavoidable when new action is undertaken.
2. Of someone not liking it.	2. Certainly someone won't like it because we don't all like the same things.
3. Of criticism.	3. You will be criticized because you are not perfect.
4. Of imposing.	4. It is impossible to be in the presence of or speak to another person without imposing in some fashion.
5. Of being thought no good.	5. So what? Know the difference between your own shortcomings and the other person's blame.

6. Of being less than perfect.	6. If you look for perfection you will find imperfection.
7. Of being left.	7. Maybe you'd be better off without the person. You'll survive it.

If all the fears came true, you would still survive. And you are not alone in having the fears. Many people have them, and they all use them to threaten themselves. By using leveling responses, it is possible to overcome the fears and respond with truth, agreeing when we want to, disagreeing when we want to, and being honest in our relationships. Then we can live freely and wholly, in touch with our real selves and in touch with others.

"Looking at Change"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

A. Objective: Assess and analyze their personal styles and modes of change.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy provides analysis of the change process on an institutional and individual basis. Participants may desire background information on change agentry and the change process prior to completing this strategy (see references listed below). The attached "Personal Change Categories" may be adapted and/or changed according to the group's needs.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have each participant fill out the "Looking at Change" worksheet using a current/past, professional/personal change.

c. Divide the group into small groups of three to share their change analyses. Indicate that each person has a maximum of ten minutes to relate the change analysis and receive comments and/or suggestions from the other group members.

d. After thirty minutes have the small groups reassemble and discuss the change process. Some discussion questions might include:

1) What changes were chosen for analysis?
2) What differences and/or similarities did your group find regarding these changes?
3) Were there forces internal to the system affecting the change (i.e., faculty, students, paraprofessionals, administration)? If so, how?
4) Were there forces external to the system affecting the change (i.e., religious or political groups in the community, state or federal agencies, mass media)? If so, how?
5) What other variables were impinging on the change process?
6) How can this knowledge be helpful in your school?

e. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 20 minutes for completing "Looking at Change"
30 minutes for small-group discussion
10 minutes for large-group discussion

Resources Needed:

Materials: Chalkboard and chalk, or newsprint and marker
Handout: "Looking at Change"
References: Havelock (1973); Howe (1975); Kanter (1975); Mann (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will describe in a paragraph the change they analyzed and list two points about the change process they became more aware of as a result of the analysis.

LOOKING AT CHANGE

1. What substantial changes have occurred in your school within the last year?

2. Select one major change with which you were directly involved and describe it in a paragraph.

3. Answer the following questions about the change you described in question 2.

   a. How did the concern/problem first come to the attention of school officials? To your attention?

   b. What subgroups were affected by the outcome of the change? In what specific ways were they affected? How were you affected?

   c. List briefly:

The forces for the change:	The forces against the change:
1)	1)
2)	2)
3)	3)
4)	4)
5)	5)

   d. Describe how information about the change was handled before, during, and after the decision to change was made.

   e. Who made the decision to change?

   f. How was the change implemented?

g. What problems were encountered in trying to implement the change? Were they overcome and if so, how?

4. Describe in a paragraph how you view the change at this point in time.

5. Could you have behaved differently? If so, how?

*Personal Change Categories**

Traditional: These techniques are what most people consider traditional and conventional ways to bring about support for a change effort.

Influencing Superior: These techniques are concerned with directly attempting to influence your boss so she/he can then "go to bat" for you.

Manipulating System: These techniques are attempts to manipulate the system or the organization to bring about change.

Aggressive: These techniques are concerned with aggressive, possibly militant techniques to bring about change.

External Influences: These techniques have to do with influence attempts that use resources and persons external to the organization to bring about change.

Wait and See: These techniques show that you are dependent upon waiting for the organization to change itself.

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*These are not the only categories possible, but are suggestions to be used during analysis.

E SR-L
CD-L TL-M

X.B.1.

"It's What You Know..."

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

B. Objective: Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This exercise could be done in small groups by institution, or by department or division, or by a mix of institutions. Perhaps it could be left to the whole group to decide. This exercise can also be done with X.B.2., "It's Who You Know...."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants identify the structures of academic governance that hold the key to changes in institutional policy regarding such issues as curriculum, student advising, career planning and placement, etc.

c. Discuss which ones are most amenable to change, which ones are least amenable. Do they vary by institution and within institutions? Which change modes might be most effective (see X.A.4., "Looking at Change")?

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 35 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Change mode from X.A.4., "Looking at Change."

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify five points of intervention in their own institution and analyze which ones are most amenable and least amenable to change.

"It's Who You Know..."

X. **Goal**: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

B. **Objective**: Identify possible points of intervention in home institutions.

2. **Learning Strategy**:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to help participants identify formal and informal contacts in their institution that can serve as points of intervention in the change process. Participants should be placed in heterogeneous groups. This strategy can be done with X.A.4., "Looking at Change," and X.B.1., "It's What You Know...."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants pick one change-related goal they hope to achieve.

c. Have each participant complete the "Contact Map" related to the goal.

d. Have participants break into small groups and discuss their "Contact Map." Possible discussion questions may include:

    1) In thinking about your goal, which formal/informal contact would be most helpful/useful? How do you plan to enlist their support?
    2) How can those contacts unfavorable to your goal inhibit your progress? How do you plan to deal with these contacts?
    3) What can you do to clarify the "maybe's" and "don't knows"? Would that be helpful?

e. Have small groups report back to the large group.

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Contact Map"
Reference: Havelock (1973); Mann (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete the "Contact Map" indicating informal/formal contacts both inside and outside their institutions. Participants will list two possible points of intervention in their home institution.

CONTACT MAP

Instructions for completing the CONTACT MAP:

1) Draw solid lines connecting areas within the college or vocational-technical institute where you have formal (official) relationships. Also draw solid lines to persons, groups, and organizations outside the college or vocational-technical institute (e.g., state university, state department of education, vocational center, etc.).

2) Draw broken lines for informal relationships within and outside your institution.

3) The following symbols may be helpful:

+ = favorable to goal
- = unfavorable to goal
+? = maybe favorable
-? = maybe unfavorable
? = don't know

Change-related goal I would like to achieve: ______________________________

____

____

Contacts Inside		Contacts Outside	
Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal

E SR-M
CD-M TL-M

X.C.1.

"Sources of Power"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

C. Objective: Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

1. Learning Strategy:

Instructions:

a. Individually, list the words which come to mind when you hear the word "power." Examples of power sources are: ability to influence one's role or position, physical strength, social power, verbal and non-verbal behaviors, and being perceived as an expert.

b. In large group, make one listing from the individual lists.

c. In small groups, identify the types and sources of the powers from the list. Suggested questions for discussion are:

1) What power sources do you have? Do you make use of them? In which situations?

2) Are there sex and race differences in certain types of power?

3) In the groups/organizations in which you currently participate, who has power? (Keep in mind the various types of power.)

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 40-50 minutes

Resources Needed:

References: Korda (1975); Polk (1974); Howe (1975); Kanter (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three sources of power they have and illustrate how they used one or more of them to try to make a change in their institution (or some other organization).

"Creating Support for Change"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

C. Objective: Examine institutional factors which may affect possibilities for change.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Although each individual person can be an effective change agent, such persons if forced to work alone are often vulnerable to attack and their work is undercut. We can assume, therefore, that the building of support groups among like-minded persons in a given institution is an essential ingredient for successful change. See "Support-Group Communication Guidelines" (handout X.F.3., "Creating an Implementation Plan").

Instructions:

a. Explain the goal and objective of strategy.

b. Divide participants into small groups, and brainstorm ways to build a strong and flexible support system. Have each group choose a recorder.

Examples of strategies are:

Develop and maintain a newsletter.
Have bimonthly support meetings.
Caucus at professional meetings.
Form coalition with other groups.

Hand out "Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration" (attached) so that the group may refer to it during their brainstorming.

c. After list is completed, have participants pick three or four ideas and elaborate on how to make those effective strategies for support. (Include discussion of strategies they have used before for this issue or for other change areas. Examine what has worked and what hasn't, as well as possible reasons for successes and failures.)

d. Have small-group recorders share results. Place these on a blackboard or newsprint.

e. Summarize.

Alternative Strategy:

The building of a successful support system involves not only drawing together those of like minds but also reeducating colleagues to non-sexist positions so that they, too, can become part of a support group. The following idea may be suggested by participants. If not, the leader could have participants list and discuss concrete ways for reeducating colleagues--including administrators who occupy key power positions. (They might want to refer back to their "Contact Map" in X.B.2., "It's Who You Know..." for help in thinking of specific people.)

Examples: Hold forum with national speaker.
Hold "speak-out" (open discussion meeting) with various school and community people involved.
Develop and send free copies of the newsletter periodically.
Have informal discussions.
Send out parent newsletter, professional report bulletins, etc.
Organize to change the reward system.
Invite semi-interested people to be on your committee.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Support-Group Communication Guidelines" (See X.F.3., Session I)
"Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration"

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will identify five strategies for building support, and analyze success or failure ingredients of particular strategies in particular situations.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS: STRATEGIES FOR INTEGRATION

by L. Sunny Hansen

The following are suggested strategies for integrating career development programs into Postsecondary/Higher Education institutions.

1. Identify developmental tasks to be mastered by students at different stages of college life, using some conceptual or theoretical framework.
2. Do a careful documentation and needs assessment through examining national, state, and local data.
3. Plan for attending to change process by a) identifying support groups (e.g., Career Development Network), b) identifying ways to get support at policy- and decision-making levels (long-range planning structure), and c) obtaining administrative commitment (written public support).
4. Coordinate efforts and activities through a central structure--e.g., Student Counseling Bureau working with student personnel offices of various colleges, a new Career Development Center, Student Development Center, Career Clinic, Career Learning Center.
5. Identify all of career orientation activities in all parts of the institution. (general first year orientation, advising offices, student personnel advisers, departmental offices, etc.)
6. Identify all of work-study or cooperative education efforts in each of the colleges or units. (Off-campus Learning Opportunities, Metro Internship Programs, Executive Internship, Shadow for a Day, etc.)
7. Identify what each college and/or discipline is doing to promote the career development of its students from admission to advising, to counseling, to instruction, to placement and follow-up.
8. Identify career information facilities and resources available centrally or in various units, e.g., in dorms, Student Counseling Bureau, college offices, Career Planning Office, library, media center.
9. Provide training opportunities for faculty in career development concepts and ways of integrating into each discipline, with special emphasis on attracting the other sex into nontraditional fields.
10. Identify kinds of career-planning, counseling, and advising activities going on in different units of the institution, e.g., central financial aid offices; college offices; residence halls; admission, placement, counseling offices.

11. Identify all the placement efforts going on in all parts of the institution (Education Placement, Liberal Arts Placement, Business Placement, etc.).

12. Involve alumni associations and distinguished and supportive alumni of the various colleges and units in a systematic effort to bridge the gap between education and work.

13. Examine for effectiveness special programs for nontraditional students (reentry women, midlife career changers, ethnic and racial minorities, older adults) especially with regard to career.

14. Identify ways in which sex-role stereotyping in the attitudes, behaviors, practices, and policies of institutions limits or expands career options.

15. Select an appropriate and validated computerized information system to supplement counselor's work in career guidance.

"Force-Field Analysis"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

In planning the use of the "Force-Field Analysis" the leader should provide sufficient time to complete the inventory during the workshop or have participants complete the inventory prior to the workshop.

Instructions

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.
Use the introductory paragraph from the inventory to explain the objective.

b. Then have participants complete the "Force-Field Analysis Inventory" and share the results in small groups of three or four.

c. Bring the small groups together to discuss their findings.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 to 2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Force-Field Analysis Inventory" (Ford and Lippitt, 1972)

Outcome Criteria:

After completing the "Force-Field Analysis," participants will list two strategies for making changes in their home institutions.

FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS INVENTORY[1]

The force-field analysis inventory, adapted from Kurt Lewin's theory of planned change, helps you to make a change effort specific and concrete. Part I asks you to define the problem clearly so that another person will be able to understand it. Part II asks you to specify the forces working for and against change; typically, this section will include your own positive motivations as well as your reservations and resistances. Part III asks you to make a specific contract with yourself to change your behavior.

PART I: PROBLEM SPECIFICATION

Think about a problem that is significant in your "back-home" situations. Respond to each item as fully as necessary so that another person can understand the problem.

1. *I understand the problem specifically to be that . . .*

2. *The following people with whom I must deal are involved in the problem:*

   Their roles in this problem are . . .

   They relate to me in the following manner:

3. *I consider these other factors to be relevant to the problem:*

---

[1] From: J. W. Pfeiffer and J. E. Jones (Eds.), A handbook of structured experiences for human relations training, Volume II, Revised, La Jolla, CA.: University Associates, 1974. Used with permission.

4. *I would choose the following aspect of the problem to be changed if it were in my power to do so:* (Choose only one aspect.)

PART II: PROBLEM ANALYSIS

5. *If I consider the present status of the problem as a temporary balance of opposing forces, the following would be on my list of forces driving toward change:* (Fill in the spaces to the right of the letters. Leave spaces to the left blank.)

_____ a. ______________________________

_____ b. ______________________________

_____ c. ______________________________

_____ d. ______________________________

_____ e. ______________________________

_____ f. ______________________________

_____ g. ______________________________

_____ h. ______________________________

6. *The following would be on my list of forces restraining change:*

_____ a. ______________________________

_____ b. ______________________________

_____ c. ______________________________

_____ d. ______________________________

_____ e. ______________________________

_____ f. ______________________________

_____ g. ______________________________

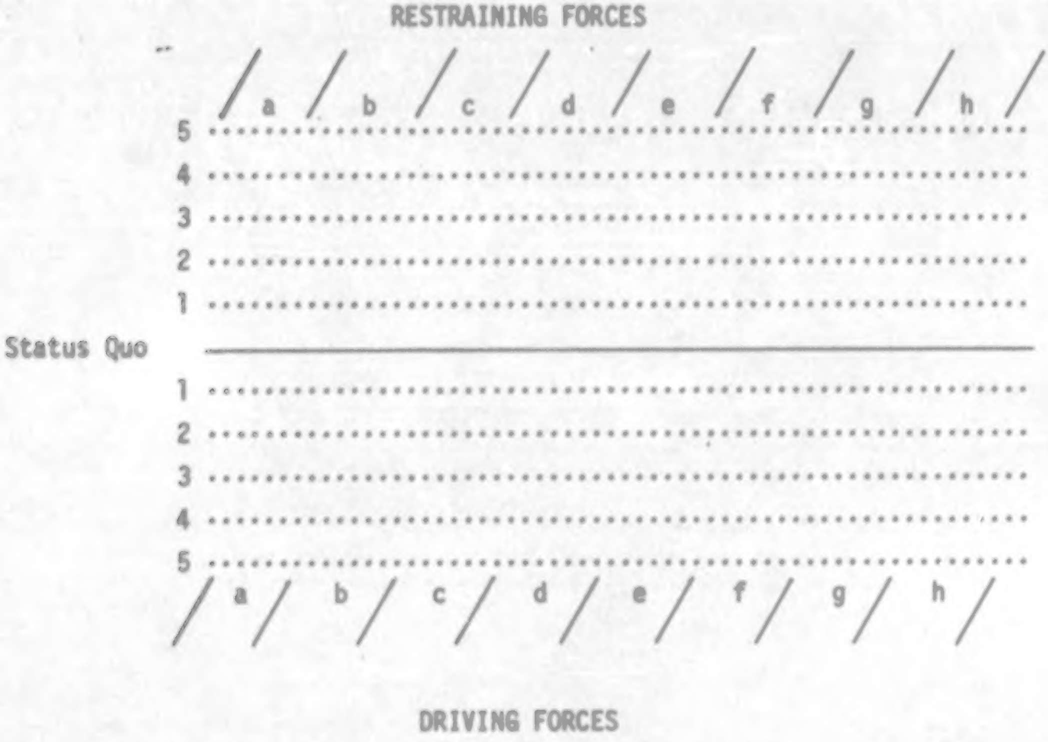
_____ h. ______________________________

7. In the spaces to the left of the letters in item 5, rate the driving forces from 1 to 5.

    1. It has *almost nothing* to do with the drive toward change in the problem.
    2. It has *relatively little* to do with the drive toward change in the problem.
    3. It is of *moderate importance* in the drive toward change in the problem.
    4. It is an *important factor* in the drive toward change in the problem.
    5. It is a *major factor* in the drive toward change in the problem.

8. In the spaces to the left of the letters in item 6, rate the forces restraining change, using the number scale in item 7.

9. In the following chart, diagram the forces driving toward change and restraining change that you rated in items 7 and 8: First write several key words to identify each of the forces driving toward change (a through h), then repeat the process for forces restraining change. Then draw an arrow from the corresponding degree of force to the status quo line. For example, if you considered the first on your list of driving forces (in item 5) to be rated a 3, draw your arrow from the 3 line in the "a" column up to the status quo line.



PART III: CHANGE STRATEGY

10. Select two or more restraining forces from your diagram and then outline a strategy for reducing their potency.

11. Apply the following goal-setting criteria (the SPIRO model) to your change strategy:

    S--*Specificity:* Exactly what are you trying to accomplish?
    P--*Performance:* What behavior is implied?
    I--*Involvement:* Who is going to do it?
    R--*Realism:* Can it be done?
    O--*Observability:* Can others see the behavior?

"Peducing Resistance"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Useful as an activity to follow up "Force-Field Analysis" (X.D.1.), this strategy will focus on barriers to change and how to overcome them. Blockages to change are important to consider: They can sabotage plans before they begin or stop them once they are in progress. This activity may be particularly appropriate for those groups for which limiting forces are the biggest block to accomplishing change.

The step-by-step plan provides a structure for deciding how to overcome these barriers. Be sure to follow the guidelines for brainstorming in the introductory material. Try to group participants from the same institutions together, but make sure participants present their ideas to the group. Participants will benefit from this idea sharing.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Define a problem applicable to the problem in the institution and related to BORN FREE.

c. Define an objective applicable to the problem in the institution and related to BORN FREE.

d. Identify the facilitating forces for reaching your objective. Brainstorm.

e. Identify the limiting forces which might keep you from reaching your objective. Brainstorm.

f. Pick three or four limiting forces that seem most important, choose one that seems more solvable, and develop an action plan following these steps:

   1) Brainstorm ideas for eliminating barrier.
   2) Choose those ideas that seem best.
   3) Decide who should expedite which idea.
   4) List needed materials and resources.
   5) Arrange ideas and actions into a time sequence.

6) Make plans for commencing the action sequence. (Who is going to do what, when, and how?)
7) Make plans for periodic evaluation.
8) Be prepared to revise your plans as needed.

g. Discuss all the things that could go wrong and ways to prevent them or prepare for them.

h. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handout: Leader may wish to provide a handout sheet for the steps listed above
Reference: Stiller (1976)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will develop an "action plan" for eliminating or reducing resistance or barriers.

"Assertiveness"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in home institutions.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

Assertiveness training is an important aspect of change process. Since many people have misconceptions about the assertiveness concept, it is important to point out to participants that it involves standing up for individual rights and expressions of thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in an honest and appropriate manner. It does not involve infringing on the rights of others.

It would be preferable to have someone give an experiential presentation on assertiveness to participants prior to this activity. Contact local organizations (National Organization for Women, various women's or self-help groups) for the names of individuals who could give this presentation. The strategy below assumes participants have received information on assertiveness prior to the activity.

Make sure to ask participants to brainstorm and record relevant situations where they have difficulties. This is also preferable for exercise X.D.4., "Situational Assertiveness."

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Have participants individually identify one assertiveness problem related to sex-role stereotyping in their institution. They should write four responses: their normal response, an assertive response, an aggressive response, and a nonassertive response.

c. In small groups, share responses. Add suggestions for responses to each other's problem areas.

d. Role play situations with help from the group's feedback.

e. Summarize in large group.

Alternative strategy:

Instead of having participants think of an assertiveness problem, give them the option of either picking one of their own assertiveness problems or choosing one from the list in X.D.4., "Situational Assertiveness."

Then continue as above.

Minimum Time Required: 1/2 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: (optional) Copies of "Assertiveness Situations" for all participants from next activity, X.D.4., "Situational Assertiveness"

Outcome Criterion:

Given an assertiveness problem, participants will write assertive, non-assertive, and aggressive responses.

"Situational Assertiveness"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

D. Objective: Identify various strategies for making change in home institutions.

4. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

It is necessary to complete strategy X.D.3., "Assertiveness," or pick some of the situations attached to that activity. It is preferable to role play personal situations, however, because the participants may be helped and have more interest in the activity. Practical application of assertiveness in role playing is important for participants.

As leader, it is important that you make sure that participants know the differences between assertive, non-assertive, and aggressive responses before beginning this activity. Discussion of these topics would be beneficial.

Be sure to follow the guidelines for role playing in the introductory material of this packet. Role playing can be either an extremely beneficial technique or a threatening technique, depending on the leadership strategies used.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Do X.D.3., "Assertiveness," prior to this exercise. Then role play two or three of the situations presented in the attached handout using assertive, aggressive, and non-assertive responses.

c. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Assertiveness Situations"

Outcome Criteria:

Given a narrative or situation dealing with an assertiveness problem, participants will identify assertive, non-assertive and aggressive responses.

ASSERTIVENESS SITUATIONS

1. You have just told your supervisor that you would like to begin a teacher support group, and she/he replied: "I really don't think that's necessary. Our relationships are just fine."

2. You have just made your opening remarks to your first workshop, and a participant in the audience shouts, "That's a lot of bullshit."

3. To male: Teacher X walks into your office, laughs knowingly, and says, "I see you're really getting into the women's thing. How'd they rope you into it?"

4. To anyone: "You know minority women have it made with affirmative action, being both a minority and a woman."

5. To a white woman: "Why aren't minority women involved in your women's support group or organization?"

6. To woman: Teacher X stops you in the hallway and says, "I really like what you're doing in career development. You know you're just not like those women's lib types."

7. Teacher X walks into your office and with concern says, "I know you're very much interested in the whole sex-role thing but we really do have more serious concerns--racism is the big issue in this school." (Or: Reverse the situation or have participants add their own institution's "big issue.")

8. You, a female, have just made a recommendation at the faculty meeting about an issue that concerns you, but it is passed over.

9. Do number 8 plus: Five minutes later, the same recommendation is made by a male, responded to, and voted on.

10. You've asked the male chair of a department why there are so few women who chose the field. He responds, "We've tried, but women just aren't interested in this area."

11. Male to female: You know, I think if "women's lib" people would just have a little more humor, they'd get a lot further. They're too deadly serious all the time.

12. Male department chair to female faculty: "You shouldn't worry so much about how much you are making--you have a husband with a more than sufficient income."

Add your own.

E SR-M X.E.1.
CD-M TL-M

"Range of Change Strategies"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

E. Objective: Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

One of the reasons for this objective is that participants sometimes become so overwhelmed by the immensity of the problem of sexism that they end up doing nothing when they return to their own institution. This activity helps them to see that there is an enormous range of change strategies from which they may choose, some requiring a lot of time and some requiring very little.

Emphasize that people's situations differ, depending on their own situation, and they must decide what they can and cannot do. (The next objective and learning strategy, X.E.2., "Commitment to Change," gives opportunity to make a commitment to particular change strategies. See this activity for examples of strategies.)

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader presents the following to participants:

"There is an enormous range of things you can do in your own situation--from writing a letter, to organizing a committee on sex bias in curriculum, to doing a systems diagnosis of career-related sex bias in your institution. People's situations differ and it's important that you have a range of strategies to choose from so that you don't leave here feeling so overwhelmed that you end up retreating from the problem. Do what you can with your own time limitations, etc. This activity will give you the opportunity to look at a very wide range of change strategies."

c. Divide participants into groups of ten and have them brainstorm a list of change strategies, from the smallest and least time commitment involved to the largest. (See introductory material on brainstorming.)

d. Report the lists in the large group.

e. Summarize.

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Minimum Time Required: 40-60 minutes

Resources Needed:

Materials: Newsprint and magic markers

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will list three examples in each category of strategies requiring minimum, medium, and maximum time commitments.

E SR-M
CD-M TL-M

X.E.2.

"Commitment to Change"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

E. Objective: Become aware of the range of change strategies appropriate for home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to help participants make their goals for change explicit in order to increase the likelihood of the changes taking place. The exercise should be done after X.E.1., "Range of Changes Strategies," so that these strategies can be included on the "Commitment to Change Strategies" worksheet.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Give participants a "Commitment to Change Strategies" worksheet which includes strategies they brainstormed previously. On this sheet they can indicate which strategies they feel they can commit themselves to and in what period of time.

Tell them these will not be collected (so they can be more honest in checking commitments). They are to take them home to use in evaluating their progress. However, if the participants are willing, the leader could make copies, keep one copy, give one to the participants, and after several weeks mail the copy as a reminder.

c. After people are finished, ask for volunteers to share what commitments they made.

d. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Commitment to Change Strategies" worksheet

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will complete the "Commitment to Change Strategies" worksheet and will write an action plan describing the strategies they intend to use. (Include the dates when they plan to begin.)

COMMITMENT TO CHANGE STRATEGIES: A WORKSHEET

Immediately	In one month	In six months	By 1 year from now	By 1 1/2 years from now	By 2 years from now	Monthly	Twice yearly	Periodically	
									Write letter to college newspaper challenging sex-biased article.
									Call a colleague on sex-biased remark or behavior.
									Work on not using sex-biased language when writing.
									Try to be conscious of my sex-biased attitudes and behaviors in interactions with others.
									Write up this workshop for college newspaper, college professional development report bulletin, etc.
									If teaching, ask students to monitor my behavior for sex bias.
									If teaching, raise questions about sex-role stereotyping in class. (For example: "What do you think the division of chapters in the history book says about the sex bias of the book?" "Do you think the women reflected the women of the period?" "What were the women doing during this period?" "How do you think the novel might have been written differently if sexism did not exist?"
									Add supplementary materials about women to my courses (or about men where applicable, e.g., in home economics and nursing).
✓									Organize a one-half-day, inservice workshop on____________.
									Integrate non-sex-biased material into the courses I teach. (Include multiracial and economic-class representation.)

Immediately	In one month	In six months	By 1 year from now	By 1 1/2 years from now	By 2 years from now	Monthly	Twice yearly	Periodically	
									Develop a new course on ______________________________.
									Add a couple of units on women (or men, where applicable) to a present course.
									Set up a committee to analyze curriculum for sex bias.
									Set up a "math anxiety" clinic and course for women students.
									Set up a Career Resource section on women.
									Set up a "Women and Men in Nontraditional Careers" year-long seminar series.

"How to Be a Process Helper"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

F. Objective: Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

1. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to introduce participants to the Havelock model for change process consultation. In order to be effective agents for change, it is important for participants to understand their role(s), the needs of the client, and strategies for change.

Hand out the "Summary of 'How To Be a Process Helper'" prior to the session and, where possible, have participants become familiar with The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (Havelock, 1973). Refer to other strategies in Goal X for use with this strategy.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Have participants divide into small groups (five to six persons) for discussion. Ask each group member to identify a goal for change in their institution and apply Havelock's six-stage model. Have them select one goal from the group for discussion.

c. Ask each group to report to the large group the goal selected for discussion and the application of the model.

d. Leader summarizes, using the results to focus the discussion on the change process.

Minimum Time Required: 1 hour

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Summary of 'How To Be a Process Helper'" (Havelock, 1973)
References: Havelock (1973); Blocher (1975)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will select one goal for change and will write a short paragraph utilizing the Havelock six-stage model.

SUMMARY OF "HOW TO BE A PROCESS HELPER"

Havelock, in his text The Change Agent's Guide to Innovation in Education (1973), uses a six-stage model of change process consultation:

Stage I: Building a Relationship
(between change agent and client)

Stage II: Diagnosing the Problem
(awareness of your needs and those of your clients)

Stage III: Acquiring Relevant Resources

Stage IV: Choosing the Solution

Stage V: Gaining Acceptance

Stage VI: Stabilizing the Innovation and Generating Self-Renewal

The first and perhaps most important step in the consulting process is establishing contact with the client population and building a relationship. The goal of such a relationship is to work collaboratively and to focus not on the solution to the problem per se, but on the target's ability to develop its own problem-solving capability. The focus is on the person or persons using the change agent's services and the user's resources.

Stages are not necessarily successive and, in some cases, can occur simultaneously.

Havelock suggests that this framework for becoming a change agent can help us move from "education the way it is now" to "education the way we would like it to be."

"Change Process: Small Is Beautiful"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME INSTITUTIONS.

F. Objective: Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

2. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

There are many models for change in educational institutions. The particular one adapted by Project BORN FREE is the Rand Model for Innovative Change Programs in Educational Institutions (Berman and McLaughlin, 1974). The leader should read BORN FREE Technical Reports Nos. 6 and 7 (Keierleber, 1978; Keierleber and Hansen, 1978) prior to using this strategy (especially pp. 36-56 and 61-74). Helpful background is also provided in the article by Hansen and Keierleber (1978).

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of strategy.

b. Leader gives a mini-lecture on the Rand Model, presenting definitions of the three stages of 1) initiation, 2) implementation, and 3) outcomes and continuation.

c. Leader summarizes the influential factors in the institutions noted in relation to initiation and implementation in the first year of BORN FREE (Technical Report No. 6, Keierleber and Hansen, 1978, pp. 36-56).

d. Leader presents in lecture or with overhead the major adaptations and trends of the first year of BORN FREE:

1) A decision to focus on reducing resistance.
2) Reducing the number of activities planned.
3) Faculty skills training for expanding options vs. attitude change.
4) Voluntary faculty participation in in-service programs.
5) Focus on career development rather than sex-role stereotyping.
6) Working through existing programs.
7) Direct interventions with students.
8) Reducing target group/problem focus.
9) Change in expectations.

e. Suggestions for discussion:

1) Why might the existence of previous career development or sex-fair programs contribute to acceptance of BORN FREE?

2) How can change agents deal with those who have very strong beliefs about traditional male and female roles?
3) What can an intervention team do to overcome barriers such as program retrenchment, overworked staff, and reorganization?
4) Why is the support of key administrators so critical? What form can such support take? Is there ever a time when administrative support may be more of a hindrance than a help?
5) What are the arguments for trying to develop programs which reach students directly rather than the teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents?
6) Why is "Small Is Beautiful" a good philosophy for educational change programs such as BORN FREE?
7) What additional "influential factors" do you anticipate in your own institution which might affect BORN FREE programs?

f. Summarize.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/4 hours

Resources Needed:

References: Berman & McLaughlin (1974); Hansen & Keierleber (1978); Keierleber (1978); Keierleber & Hansen (1978)

Outcome Criteria:

Participants will identify five influential factors which affect program implementation in career development and sex-role stereotyping.

"Creating an Implementation Plan"

X. Goal: PARTICIPANTS WILL DEVELOP STRATEGIES FOR MAKING CONSTRUCTIVE CHANGES IN THEIR HOME EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

F. Objective: Apply a systems model of content and process in developing strategies for change in home institutions.

3. Learning Strategy:

Note to Leader:

This strategy is designed to assist participants in the creation of implementation plans for home institutions. Participants will find utilization of other change process strategies in Goal X helpful in completing this strategy, as well as selected strategies from other goals.

The strategy is designed to be completed in four consecutive 1 1/2 hour sessions. Most of the tasks are to be completed in small, mixed institution groups; however, some tasks are to be completed outside the session. You may choose to expand or limit the time accordingly.

Instructions:

a. Explain goal and objective of the strategy.

b. Divide participants into small mixed-institution groups. If possible, groups should be divided by level (i.e., elementary, secondary, postsecondary/higher education) or by interest area (i.e., state agencies, junior colleges, vocational-technical schools).

c. Hand out "Systems Framework for Implementation Plans" and present a brief overview on change process using the handout as a guide. This brief presentation can provide an opportunity 1) to summarize content from other learning strategies in Goal X and 2) to bring together highlights from readings on change process.

d. Pass out the appropriate session outline and explain briefly what is to be covered, referring back to the overview sheet where necessary. Be prepared to answer questions or provide clarification. Make sure that group members understand the tasks to be completed in the group and independently.

e. Have each small group select a recorder to report back to the large group.

f. At the close of the fourth session ask individual participants to share their completed plan with their appropriate developmental level (i.e., elementary, secondary, postsecondary, higher education) or interest area.

g. Have small groups reconvene as one group and ask the recorders to report the highlights of the implementation plans presented in the small groups.

h. Summarize the reports, utilizing the highlights to emphasize the elements of change process.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours for each of the four sessions.

Resources Needed:

Handout: "Systems Framework for Implementation Plans"
Outlines for "Creating an Implementation Plan," Sessions I-IV

Outcome Criterion:

See appropriate session outline.

SYSTEMS FRAMEWORK FOR IMPLEMENTATION PLANS

I. Planning

- Needs Assessment - National Data, Local Data
  - Status assessment
  - Goal assessment
- Systems Diagnosis or Analysis
  - Human resources - identify support group
  - Media resources
- Rationale for Program
  - Career Development Conceptual Framework
  - Change Process Evaluation - Rand Model
- Establish Needs and Goals

II. Developing and Structuring

- Specify objectives
- Prioritize objectives
- Analyze resources
- Consider alternate strategies, illustrative programs
- Select alternate strategies related to objectives

III. Implementing

- Specify process objectives
- Develop staff
- Reward and reinforce staff
- Select priority strategies
- Try out and monitor activities
- Build communication network about ongoing activities

IV. Evaluating

- Evaluate process
- Evaluate products developed (if any)
- Analyze change process activities
- Analyze cost/benefit
- Decide go/no-go - continuation plans
- Communicate results to all significant persons

CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

Session I: Planning

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to acquaint the participants with the overall elements of change process and, more specifically, methods for conducting a needs assessment/systems diagnosis and developing a rationale for change.

Instructions:

a. Divide the participants into appropriate small groups (developmental level or task). Hand out a copy of "Support-Group Communication Guidelines for Implementation Plan" and discuss.

b. Describe the agenda for the session (a brief handout may be helpful) and set time allotments for the activities to be completed.

c. Hand out materials for all four sessions and provide an overview of the team tasks to be completed in session I (see d. below).

d. Have participants complete "Armchair Perceptions" of their institutions and share with the group (thirty minutes). (Hand out "Guidelines for Systems Diagnosis" and "Worksheet for Systems Diagnosis" for use by participants.)

e. Using the background readings, handouts, and other completed module strategies, have participants work separately on their "Rationale" for their implementation plan. (This may be most effectively completed as a take-home task.)

f. Summarize session I and lay groundwork for session II.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Support-Group Communication Guidelines for Implementation Plan," "Worksheet for Systems Diagnosis," "Armchair Perceptions," "Guidelines for Systems Diagnosis," "Developing a Rationale," "A Career Management Model for Counselor Involvement" (Hansen & Tennyson, 1975. See Strategy I.A.2.)
Attached article: "Needs Assessment" (Benson, 1975)
References: Parker (1975); Hansen & Gysbers (1975); Sargent (1977)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete "Armchair Perceptions" and "Developing a Rationale" worksheets.

SUPPORT-GROUP COMMUNICATION GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

This is your SUPPORT GROUP! Right now you are individuals just beginning to become acquainted with each other, but the goal of your group is to become a positive support to each other, exploring and changing your own behavior, both within the group and in the rest of your daily life, so that each of you becomes a more productive and satisfied person.

We ask that you commit yourself to the following behaviors and remind you that you can expect your support-group members to use them also.

1. Learn to listen:
   a. as actively and constructively as you are able;
   b. with acceptance and positive interest;
   c. hearing each other out, focusing on understanding the situation and the other's feelings;
   d. then asking questions to draw out the other, to expand, or clarify, rather than giving your opinion immediately;
   e. then checking back with the speaker so she/he knows you understood what she/he said.
2. Learn to participate:
   a. as fully, openly and constructively as you are able;
   b. accepting and owning your own behavior, thoughts, and feelings as part of yourself;
   c. recognizing that openness involves risk taking, that by taking risks you can discover who you are and what you are capable of;
   d. keeping the interchanges non-judgmental with the attitude "what can each of us learn from this that will make our relating and supporting more productive and more satisfying?"
3. Learn to process or re-examine your own behaviors and feelings as thoughtfully and thoroughly as possible at the end of each support-group session.
4. Respect the confidential nature of what is shared in your group.
5. Remember, respect and remind yourself (and others) of this commitment when necessary.

WORKSHEET FOR SYSTEMS DIAGNOSIS

I. Introduction and Rationale

  1. General goals and concerns for your school with regard to Project BORN FREE goals

  2. Reasons, goals for systems diagnosis of your school

II. Descriptive and Demographic Data

  1. General description of type of school

  2. General description of community school serves

  3. Characteristics of staff

     a. number of staff
     b. number of males, females
     c. age, range and mean
     d. educational levels (BA, MA, MA+, PhD, EdD)

  4. Characteristics of students

     a. number of students
     b. number of males, females
     c. grades
     d. future plans
     e. follow-up data: post-graduation actual choices

  5. Characteristics of parents

     a. married, single
     b. average number of children
     c. ethnic background, distribution
     d. educational levels
     e. occupations: fathers, mothers

III. Project Data

  1. Description of current and past career development/career education activities and programs

  2. Description of current and past activities and programs with regard to sex roles and sex-role stereotyping

  3. Description and indicators of support for Project BORN FREE

  4. Description and indicators of resistance to Project BORN FREE

IV. Communication Data: Inhibitors and Facilitators

1. Administrators - teachers
2. Teachers - students
3. Counselors - students
4. Parents- students
5. Students - students
6. Bulletin boards, displays

V. Analysis of Options

1. Curricular choices
    a. types of curricular courses, programs available
    b. number of students enrolled in courses, programs: males, females
2. Extracurricular choices
    a. number of extracurricular activities available for males, females, both
    b. types of activities available for males, females, both
    c. participation rates for males, females in activities
3. Counseling and guidance

VI. Sources and Methods for Information Collection

1. Systematic observation of behavior
2. Protocol interviews with students, staff, parents
3. "Homemade" questionnaires
4. Standardized surveys, tests, questionnaires
5. Institutional policy statements, reports, newsletters
6. Local summary review, research reports
7. Unsummarized available data

VII. Plan for Information Collection

1. Important characteristics of persons providing information
2. Methods, procedures used in collecting information
3. Methods, procedures used in analyzing, summarizing information

VIII. Additional Activities

Description of activities planned (if any) in the next few months related to Project BORN FREE goals (other than systems diagnosis and needs-assessment activities).

GUIDELINES FOR SYSTEMS DIAGNOSIS

Change Process

1. Assess the extent of commitment to the project. Involve as many people as possible in dealing with the issue.

2. Analyze the communication network, formal and informal, within the system.

3. Examine the formal statements of institutional goals, objectives, and missions.

4. Identify your support system--those sympathizers with the goals of the project, those willing to have active involvement, those who may be persuaded.

5. Identify form and amount of resistance to project goals.

6. Analyze the decision-making structure--how decisions are influenced and made within the system, who has the power.

Project Product

1. Identify what is being done to facilitate student career development--the components of a career education program.

2. Identify what is being done to inhibit or limit career options--attitudes, practices and behaviors.

3. Identify ways in which parents are involved in the school, where appropriate.

4. Identify the extent to which there is sex-role stereotyping in career development programs or activities.

5. Identify school policies which suggest sex-role stereotyping.

6. Identify future plans of students who attend the institution (if available).

7. Identify nature and range of overall opportunity perceptions of students.

8. Identify role possibility perceptions of students.

9. Identify actual decision points students face at different grades, stages, or levels.

10. Identify "decision influences" in the educational structure and relationships.

ARMCHAIR PERCEPTIONS

Change Process	Implementation Strategy

X.F.3.
(cont'd.)
(Session I)

DEVELOPING A RATIONALE

(BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan)

Status Assessment:

Outcome Assessment:

Local Documentation of Need:

National Documentation of Need:

Conceptual Framework from Literature:

NEEDS ASSESSMENT[1]

PURPOSE, RATIONALE, DEFINITIONS

Purpose of the Guide

The purpose of this guide is to provide strategies of organizational change as applied to career education. A focused-planned success approach to program implementation will be illustrated with specific career education examples.

Definitions

The theoretical and philosophical base for the specific examples of career education implementation comes from the developmental self-concept approach to career development of Super (1957). Super described career development as a life long process of implementing a self-concept with satisfaction to self and with benefit to society. Career is defined much more broadly than occupational or paid employment activities and encompasses much of parenting and household activities as well as volunteer services and creative leisure activities. The pattern of social roles that a person might take including the role of student, parent, volunteer, and job holder can be called one's career pattern.

A wide-range of definitions of career education can create confusion and stress when it comes to the implementation of programs. A continuum of narrow to broad definitions is as follows:

Vocational Education	Occupational Education	Career Education	Life Style Education
Job Training	Occupational Information	--Self-awareness --Explorations of Life Styles --Decision-making --Interpersonal Skills --Meanings and Values of Work --Entry Level Job Skills	Occupational Life Family LIfe Social Life Leisure Life

The example programs will draw heavily from the broader definitions which also include job training as a component of career maturity. Any implementation team needs a clarity of purpose, common labels, and explicitly agreed upon objectives--usually arrived at by a process of negotiation.

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[1] From: Benson, A. N. Implementing career education programs, 1975. Permission to reprint granted by Minnesota State Department of Education.

A broad developmental model of career development suggests several needs for career education: (1) an inclusion of all of the curriculum areas as well as the informal curriculum experiences of a school, such as co-curricular activities, student grading, and discipline policies; (2) the cooperation of all curriculum areas, pupil personnel services, and the community; and (3) planned developmental activities K-12 and beyond.

In analyzing the research on worker satisfaction and alienation the *Work in America* report (1972) also suggests a fourth need for career education which entails redesigning the school as a participation management work place for students as well as teachers. In one sense career education is a way of thinking about schools and can include broad goals and integration by providing:

1. A bridge between humanistic child centered trends in education and traditional subject matter areas.

2. A bridge between teachers at different grade levels and in different departments.

3. A bridge between school and community.

A definition of career education needs to become specific enough to suggest what a person needs for career maturity. A broad definition of career education suggests the following:

A. Realistic knowledge and positive attitudes toward self: interests, talents, goals.

B. An awareness of occupational and life-style options.

C. Skills in personal decision-making and life planning.

D. Ability to relate to people.

E. Realistic expectations and awareness of work values.

F. Salable job skills.

CONCEPTUAL MODELS

A conceptual model of career development with student outcome objectives is a necessity. The framework of student learning objectives needs to be built upon the two bases of (1) the changing occupational and social structure and (2) the research on learning and human development. Examples of basic occupational-social changes include an increasing emphasis on knowledge and service occupations, multiple occupational roles in one's lifetime, a large number of young and old people, the decline of authoritarian values and institutions, the increasing educational levels of all segments of society, and the increasing expectation of life style and occupation as meeting needs for self-actualization. Examples of human learning and development influences include the emphasis of life stages, developmental tasks, and sequential coping skills, and the growth of psychological education in areas of values, self-esteem, creativity, destiny control, and interpersonal competence.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

In considering process and outcome goals the use of behavioral objectives can help us know when we have achieved a broadly stated goal as well as increasing the clarity of our intentions (Mease and Benson, 1973). One potential benefit from focusing on specific program and instructional objectives is greater job satisfaction for ourselves as educators. Self-reinforcement resulting from knowledge of positive results is more probable if we specify our objectives and then prioritize our implementation efforts and evaluate our outcomes based on measureable objectives.

Most career education objectives encompass what is often called the behavioral domains of the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor areas (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1956; and Dave, 1956). When considering assessing needs and evaluating progress a useful classification of process and outcome objectives is observable and nonobservable behavior.

In order to provide a framework for career development learning activities which can be infused into all areas of the formal and informal curriculum, an example set of goals and objectives will be detailed. A set of objectives can provide the conceptual framework for needs assessment, program planning, and program evaluation. The objectives can be implemented at various levels of mastery on a K-adult basis and are found at the end of this chapter.

A SYSTEMS APPROACH

Rationale

The first step in the process of career education program implementation is a local needs assessment study. Needs assessment is the ongoing systematic gathering of baseline data necessary for program planning and generating motivation for change. Needs assessment includes sampling the perceptions of students, staff, and community as to lacks or deficiencies which can be fulfilled by specified goals and objectives. By a systems approach is meant the process steps in program implementation and includes:

1. Needs assessment
2. Analysis of the school's organizational framework
3. General program planning
4. Specific techniques and framework for implemention
5. Evaluation and recycling of steps 1 through 4

The determination of student needs includes an analysis of current school and community programs and resources, as well as student attitudes, skills, and knowledge. In the preliminary steps of information gathering, a base of support for change can be established by including teachers, administrators, parents, and students in the planning and execution of a career development needs study.

Even in the preliminary needs assessment process a broad conceptual framework of human growth and career development is needed. Inherent in the systems approach to program implementation are the characteristics of interdependence and balance of the implementation steps. For example, the results of the needs assessment study will determine the focus of the program activities and the evaluation. In the recycling process the nature of the program activities and the evaluation will determine the revision of the needs assessment study. Any career education program will only be as strong as the weakest component of the implementation system. For example, an elaborate determination of needs and objectives may not pay off in terms of program outcomes unless the planning and implementation of activities are of similar quality. The full potential of the needs study planning and implementing will not be realized unless the evaluation feeds back useful data for maintaining and revising the program. Innovative programs often overemphasize one or more of the process steps at the expense of other components. Within the context of limited resources it's better to seek balanced quality among the program implementation cycle steps rather than neglecting any one phase--such as evaluation.

Where to Start

The reader is encouraged to apply the techniques of needs assessment and goal setting to one's own professional needs and job satisfaction in terms of strengths and areas for growth (see Mease and Benson, 1973 for a comprehensive description of this process). We also need to exercise whatever options we have in our occupational role to select the areas of intervention and program goals which are most likely to contribute to job satisfaction and professional growth. The following goal setting activity can be a helpful first step in implementing career education.

FIELD FORCE ANALYSIS

PERSONAL GOAL SETTING

I. Describe a goal or objective in a way it can be observed, measured or evaluated.

   A. Consider a goal in terms of short-range action in the next few days.

   B. Consider a longer range goal attainable through small increments or "successive approximations."

(cont.)

II. Diagram the field forces favoring your action plan to accomplish your goal. Consider:

- A. Personal interests, motivations
- B. Personal skills and abilities
- C. People support systems available
- D. Physical resources that can be brought to bear
- E. Other favorable factors

III. Diagram the field forces resisting your goal attainment

- A. Personal areas for growth
- B. Reactions of resistance by the people affected
- C. Physical resources not readily available
- D. Other resistance factors

A PERSONAL GOAL

Short-Range Goal:

Long-Range Goal:

Field Forces

Forces For	Forces Against
→	←

If possible share this goal and field force analysis with two or more other people in your support system.

Motivation for Change

In order to capitalize on the results of a needs assessment survey, one must determine whose perceptions of needs to use in setting goals and developing activities. Needs assessment includes the perceptions of students, staff, and community which will often contain common elements but also almost invariably contain major discrepancies. In some cases the discrepancies are partly semantics and degrees of emphasis; however, in all instances an explicit negotiation of goals with the target population is necessary. Open negotiation of needs and goals is part of the need tieing process (Mease and Benson, 1973). Need tieing is the art of eliciting the target population's needs as they perceive them and selectively meshing these needs with your professional assessment of their needs based on a sound conceptual framework of career development. The target population(s) must clearly see enough payoff in terms of their needs in order to exert the necessary efforts and assume the risks of the proposed change. True negotiation requires open and honest communication of intentions as well as perceptions of shared power and mutuality of influence on the part of all concerned parties. There are significant, but also subtle, differences in methodology and results between the career development change agent openly negotiating and influencing needs and goals with a target population and merely using "democratic packaging" to cover up devious power plays and manipulations of people and groups. One way to facilitate successful need tieing is to involve the target population(s) in the beginning of any career development programing--which includes the local needs study. . . .

Techniques of Needs Assessment

Techniques for assessing career development needs as expressed by students, staff, and community are part of total planning and evaluation of a systems approach to program implementation. The following seven techniques can be used to assess needs and evaluate progress: cognitive tests, interviews, attitude and reaction questionnaires, observation, simulation exercises, sociometric ratings, and the use of other indicators.

. . .Three essential characteristics of any needs assessment technique are specificity, reliability, and validity. Briefly, specificity refers to the need to gather concrete detailed information in order to assess strengths and areas for growth as well as explanations for the degrees of successes and failures found. Global evaluations are not sufficient when it comes to planning and revising activities. The reliability of assessment procedures refers to the consistency or predictability of test, questionnaire, or observational ratings either over time or across items or samples made at the same time. In general, clear-cut directions, pilot use of the assessment techniques, and larger numbers of items will increase reliability. In achievement testing conduct an item analysis to determine the average item difficulty level which ideally should be in the 50 to 70% correct range. Revising items so that they discriminate the top quarter of the sample for the bottom quarter will increase both reliability and validity.

Validity refers to the extent to which an assessment technique measures what it is supposed to measure. In designing test, questionnaire, or interview items it is important to sample the content of the behavioral objectives (content validity), which re-emphasizes the need for a prior conceptual framework of career development. Objectivity can be defined as the degree of similarity of observations or assessments made by two or more reporting sources. For example, if a teacher's observations of a student's sense of destiny control and planfulness is confirmed by a counselor's rating of the student's educational planning activities, a degree of objectivity is present. Often two different methods of assessing a program objective are available for comparison (con-current validity). Assessing the current achievement or attitudes of a student in order to predict future achievement or attitudes (predictive validity) is often the most difficult. For example, if we wish to assess the student's decision-making skills as demonstrated by the use of study or leisure time in order to predict skills used in post high school career planning, we need longitudinal data.

Often one uses school records, behavioral observations, or tests as indirect indicators of the attainment of instructional goals when direct measures are not feasible. Closely related to the use of indirect indicators is inferring the presence of some quality such as destiny control or ego strength to bridge the gap between the indicator and the behavior of concern (construct validity). For example, it's difficult to directly measure respect for workers (Objective V) and positive attitude toward self (Objective I); but we might infer such qualities by tests of awareness and understanding of worker contributions as well as by observing student behavior in classroom small group activity. The more indirect the assessment indicator is the more difficult it is to interpret the results of a local needs study. For example, making inferences about student self-esteem from attendance records is a questionable technique, especially when used in isolation.

In using any assessment technique with any population including students, staff, and community, it is important to be aware of the phenomenon of the "self-fulfilling prophecy." The self-fulfilling prophecy refers to the influence on people's responses which comes from their perception of the capability of the assessment agent to satisfy their needs. For example, if students perceive that the teacher or counselor asking about their career needs is sincerely interested and capable of helping them, the results will be more accurate.

Another validity factor in needs assessment is the trust level between the assessment population and the assessors. Concerns about who is going to see the data and how is the data going to be used along with potential objections to invasion of privacy can significantly affect validity. An honest explanation to everyone concerned as to the purpose of the needs study, how the information will be used, and who it will be shared with is a necessary ethical and practical responsibility.

Another assessment procedural concern is the sampling methods used. Needs assessment must consider all relevant populations including students, graduates, parents, and other community residents, teachers, and administrators; and in some instances state and federal agencies. Considering a balanced approach to the quality of each implementation step, it is usually not feasible to sample every person in each relevant population. A random sample of 5 to 15 percent of the assessment population is often practical. If the sample is selected with some degree of randomness or known bias factors are sampled on a stratified random basis, the data are less expensive to obtain, analyze, and interpret.

TESTS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

. . . The following survey might be used to determine what junior or senior high students' needs are in the area of personal decision-making and life planning.

PREASSESSMENT SURVEY

DIRECTIONS: Decide if you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. If you mostly agree, blacken T on the answer sheet. If you mostly disagree, blacken F on the answer sheet.

1. It is almost impossible to plan your life in advance because so much depends on luck or chance.
2. The decisions you make now have a big effect on your life in later years.
3. Upon graduation from high school, a final career choice should be made.
4. In the early high school years it is wise to keep your ideas about the future flexible.
5. As far as choosing leisure activities, spouse, or occupation is concerned, something will come along sooner or later.
6. It's probably just as easy to be successful in one occupation as it is in another.
7. By the time you are 15, you should have your mind pretty well made up about the occupation you intend to enter.

Choose the best answer:

8. The best single source of information for occupational research is the
   a. Occupational Outlook Handbook
   b. Newspaper want ads
   c. Dictionary of Occupational Titles
   d. Employment Opportunities by the State Employment Service
9. In personal occupational planning, each student should study
   a. Approximately three occupations
   b. All occupations
   c. The skills of personal planning
   d. One occupation

(cont.)

10. Tests can best help a student determine
    a. Values
    b. Interests
    c. Odds of success and failure
    d. Both a and b

The following questionnaire gathering information from senior high students was used in planning a comprehensive K-12 career education program.

SURVEY OF SENIOR HIGH STUDENT ATTITUDES REGARDING CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Name ________________ (optional)

Grade ________________

1. How do you feel about the help available in selecting electives?

_____ a. about right

_____ b. more than necessary

_____ c. too little help--explain ________________________

____

2. Whose advice did you consider in selecting electives? (Check as many as apply)

_____ a. teacher

_____ b. counselor

_____ c. parents

_____ d. friends

3. Have you had your school record (file in the Guidance Office) explained to you? _____yes _____no (if so, what items were explained? Check as many as apply)

_____ a. standardized test scores

_____ b. grades

_____ c. other information

If yes, how helpful was it? _____much _____some _____none

If no, do you feel it would be helpful? _____yes _____maybe

_____no Why or why not? ________________________________

____

(cont.)

4. How much have courses you are taking or have taken in school influenced your thinking in your future education and career development? List the most influential courses: ____________

____

____

5. How many different occupations have you considered up to now?

_____ none

_____ 1

_____ 2-3

_____ 4-10

_____ more than 10

6. Are you interested in education beyond high school? _____yes _____no If yes, who has influenced you?

_____ parents

_____ teachers

_____ counselors

_____ friends

_____ religious contacts

_____ other

7. If yes, what type of education are you considering? (Check those that apply)

_____ a. Four-year college

_____ b. Junior college (two years)

_____ c. Technical or vocational school

_____ d. Other

_____ e. None

8. What type of encouragement for post high school education have you received?

Parents:

_____ encouraged college only

_____ encouraged college or technical or trade school

_____ no encouragement noticed

Teachers:

_____ encouraged college only

_____ encouraged college or technical or trade school

_____ no encouragement noticed

(cont.)

Counselors:

_____ encouraged college only

_____ encouraged college or technical or trade school

_____ no encouragement noticed

9. How do people important to you feel about your educational and vocational plans?

	Approve	Disapprove	Don't Know
Parents			
Teachers			
Counselors			
Friends			
Others			

10. What would you suggest for education on careers? (Check those that apply)

_____ a. more counseling

_____ b. more reading of autobiographies

_____ c. more classroom study of different jobs

_____ d. none of the above

11. List the school subject areas where different types of work (careers) have been discussed: _______ _______ _______

_______ _______ _______

12. Who was the most helpful to you in making your present career decisions? Indicate the order of importance by numbering 1, 2, etc.

_____ Teacher

_____ Counselor

_____ Parent

_____ Friend

_____ Yourself

_____ Religious contacts

_____ Job contacts

_____ No one

(cont.)

13. Who was most helpful in exposing you to the ideas of work and different occupations and life style? Indicate the order of importance by numbering 1, 2, etc.

_____ Teacher
_____ Counselor
_____ Parent
_____ Friend
_____ Yourself
_____ Religious contacts
_____ Job contacts
_____ No one

14. Was there anyone in high school available to talk about occupations, to listen to your interests and evaluate your capabilities? _____ yes _____ no. If so, what area did he represent? (Examples: Math, Counseling, Science, Ind. Arts, etc.) ______________________________

15. Is there a need for more specific programs in helping students to make career decisions in all academic areas? _____ yes _____ no

a. At what grade level? ____________________
b. In what specific areas? ____________________
c. Any specific programs? ____________________

16. Was the 9th grade career planning unit worthwhile? _____ yes _____ no. If yes, check the areas where your knowledge was increased:

_____ self-knowledge
_____ skill in decision making
_____ knowledge of vocations
_____ knowledge of educational opportunities

17. How helpful were the results of interest inventories used in the career planning unit?

_____ very helpful
_____ some help
_____ no help

(cont.)

18. Do you feel that an elective course at the senior high level should be offered which is specifically designed to aid a student in post high school planning? _____yes _____no
_____ don't know.
If yes, what would you like to have included in this course? Check as many as apply:

_____ self-knowledge

_____ skill in decision making

_____ knowledge of vocations

_____ knowledge of educational opportunities

A comprehensive study of student career development needs prepared by the Research and Development Division of the American College Testing Program is available from:

ACT Publications
P.O. Box 168
Iowa City, Iowa 52240
Title "Nationwide Study of Student Career Development: Summary of Results"
ACT Research Report Number 61, November 1973
Price $1.00

The study results are based on a national sample of 32,000 students in 200 schools and focus on three areas:

What students say about their needs.

What students have done about career exploration and planning.

What students know about occupations and career planning.

Another project report that can be sent for is entitled "Toward Accountability--A Report on the Mesa Approach to Career Guidance, Counseling, and Placement," 1973. This project report covers needs assessment, planning, and evaluation and is available from:

Byron E. McKinnon
Coordinator of Guidance
Mesa Public Schools
Guidance Services Center
14 West Second Avenue
Mesa, Arizona 85202

STUDENT OUTCOME OBJECTIVES

In order to provide a conceptual framework for career development learning activities which can be infused into all areas of the curriculum, a three-level set of goals and objectives is provided. The model of career education elaborated here has five basic goals centered around self-esteem, decision-making, life style and vocational exploration, interpersonal competence, and work ethic. Elaborating each of the five basic goals are five or six performance objectives. At the third level of specificity there are two or three behavioral objectives subsumed under each performance objective. It is suggested that any career education model encompass a set of goals and objectives K-12.

AN EXAMPLE FRAMEWORK OF STUDENT OUTCOME OBJECTIVES

I. To implement a positive self-concept with awareness of personal characteristics as they relate to career roles.

A. Analyzes strengths in terms of skills, developed abilities, interests and potential for growth.

1. The student can relate strengths and personal resources to preferred life style.

2. The student can project and support a plan for personal development through educational-vocational planning.

B. Analyzes personal values in terms of tentative career plans and projected life style.

1. The student can identify the values inherent in tentative life style plans.

2. The student can prioritize values in relationship to tentative life style.

3. The student demonstrates skill in resolving value conflicts between personal values and the environmental press of projected career-life style planning.

C. Analyzes the social roles and life style implications of tentative career plans.

1. The student can describe the social behavior expectations of preferred occupation(s) and relate this to self-concept.

2. The student can describe the range of personal freedom to implement self-concept in a variety of occupation(s).

615

(cont.)

D. Describes the potential sources of satisfaction and self-expression in the preferred occupation(s).

  1. The student can relate psychological needs to tentative life career plans.

  2. The student can project satisfaction of economic needs through tentative career plans.

  3. The student describes ways in which interests and talents can be expressed through tentative career plan(s) and life style(s).

E. Analyzes personal values and needs for achievement in terms of career aspirations.

  1. The student describes in a positive way success needs and actively copes with fears of failure.

  2. The student compares success aspirations with workers in the various occupation(s).

F. Demonstrates personal contributions to society.

  1. The student participates in work experiences such as entry level jobs and describes contributions through work.

  2. The student participates in family, school, and community activities and describes contributions.

II. To apply decision-making skills to personal life planning.

A. Analyzes tentative life style plans with a decision-making model.

  1. The student describes aspirations, alternative courses of action and the field forces affecting goal attainment.

  2. The student formulates sequential short- and long-range tentative plans with identification of decision strategies used.

B. Realistically predicts the probable consequences of tentative personal plans.

  1. The student describes the outcomes of tentative career decisions in terms of personal goals and effects upon significant others.

(cont.)

2. The student can describe the odds of success and failure of personal plans from a personal viewpoint.

3. The student modifies tentative personal plans in the light of new information and chance factors.

C. Exhibits responsibility for the consequences of educational-vocational decisions and personal goal striving.

1. The student accurately attributes to oneself the elements of status for which one is personally responsible.

2. The student takes the required action to implement personal plans on a reality test basis.

D. Demonstrates coordinated decision-making in various life spheres and periods of time.

1. The student relates educational, occupational, family life, and recreational decisions into an integrated tentative life style.

2. The student projects into the future the consequences of decisions made now.

E. Exhibits planful use of resources in achieving personal aspirations.

1. The student's use of time and energies is congruent with stated goals.

2. The student budgets resources over long periods of time.

F. Utilizes the major informational resources needed in personal decision-making.

1. The student examines critically the advice given by significant others.

2. The student utilizes appropriate criteria for evaluating information.

III. To acquire increasing knowledge of educational-vocational possibilities, as well as experience in work related settings.

A. Describes the necessary preparation for a variety of occupation(s).

1. The student describes the educational and training requirements for personal career goals.

(cont.)

2. The student identifies the sources of financial assistance for any necessary education or experience.

3. The student describes the various job ladder progressions of several occupations.

B. Utilizes technical and nontechnical resources for gathering information about occupations.

1. The student critically evaluates and uses occupational information from school and mass media sources.

2. The student critically evaluates and uses occupational information from the community.

3. The student critically analyzes work related experiences.

C. Studies in detail the worker satisfactions and dissatisfactions in various career fields.

1. The student analyzes the sources of potential frustrations, satisfactions, dissatisfactions in the various career fields.

2. The student describes the financial compensation at various steps of the career ladder of a variety of occupation(s).

3. The student analyzes the ethical questions which confront workers and projects personal solutions.

D. Identifies the sources of power in various task situations and describes their potential personal effects.

1. The student describes the formal and informal power structures in various organization and career fields.

2. The student describes the potential effects of various leadership styles and organizational decision-making in task situation(s).

3. The student describes the potential personal implications of worker organizations such as unions and professional associations.

E. Makes personal career plans which take into account social, economic, and technological changes.

1. Describes the possible effects of social, economic, and technological changes upon preferred occupational role(s).

(cont.)

2. Identifies the common elements in occupation(s) which may transfer to other fields.

F. Experiences aspects of an entry level position in the school setting or in the community.

1. The student prepares for consideration by an employer when choosing from several job applicants.

2. The student applies job seeking skills, including application and interview procedures.

3. The student analyzes the compensations and promotional possibilities in entry job experience.

IV. To develop and apply the interpersonal competency skills required in preferred career and life style plans.

A. Identifies interpersonal characteristics necessary for various occupational role(s).

1. The student describes personal career potential in terms of interpersonal skills.

2. The student describes personal areas for growth in terms of interpersonal skills needed for career life style and develops an action plan.

B. Copes with the power exercised by others in work and work-related situations in ways which are self-rewarding.

1. The student correctly assesses formal and informal power structures in educational and work settings.

2. The student maintains a personal integrity in the face of different and sometimes conflicting expectations of others.

3. The student uses constructive problem-solving skills in conflict situations.

C. Exhibits interdependence and cooperation in task situations.

1. The student exhibits an awareness of the needs of others in task situations.

2. The student shares in the success of group goal attainment.

D. Displays knowledge and skill in applied group dynamics and work organization.

(cont.)

1. The student analyzes the structures and processes involved in productive group efforts.

2. The student is a contributing member of a work group or related organization.

E. Demonstrates effective use of interpersonal communication in work and work related situations.

1. The student clarifies and evaluates the messages and instructions of others.

2. The student communicates messages and instructions to others in a helpful manner.

3. The student receives and gives feedback and suggestions.

V. To develop a respect for work, including its personal, as well as its social, contributions and implications.

A. Describes ways in which careers allow movement between work, play, and creative leisure.

1. The student identifies ways in which career(s) affect personal growth and independence.

2. The student explains how work experiences and leisure activities can relate.

B. Describes work as a major means of changing one's personal environment, as well as society in general.

1. The student describes how he can work for personal and social changes within a variety of occupation(s).

2. The student describes social problems of today which future workers might help alleviate.

C. Understands the important and changing contributions of women and minority groups to society.

1. The student describes the effects on men and women of the breaking down of the traditional sex roles.

2. The student describes the effects of minority group discrimination.

D. Debates the ethic of individual success versus the ethic of collective striving for social well-being.

1. The student relates career aspirations to personal, as well as social, well-being.

(cont.)

2. The student identifies potential conflicts between personal and social well-being and possible compromises.

3. The student describes the interdependence of all workers in contributing to the well-being of society.

E. Identifies the changing meanings of work over time and across cultures.

1. The student can describe pre-industrial and industrial work ethics.

2. The student can begin to develop a personal work ethic based upon an increasingly service-oriented society.

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CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN (CONT.)

Session II: Developing and Structuring

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to help participants set and prioritize objectives, analyze available resources, and consider possible strategies for change.

Instructions:

a. Describe the agenda for the session and set time allotments for the activities.

b. Have participants reconvene in their small groups and share briefly (five minutes each) their "Rationale" (Session I).

c. Have small groups select a recorder and ask them to brainstorm strategies for change in their own areas (fifteen minutes). At the end of fifteen minutes ask recorder to report these strategies and place on newsprint or on a blackboard for other participants to see. Summarize. (The leader may also wish to put these on mimeo and distribute them to all participants.)

d. Hand out "Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration," "Building Strategies Worksheet" and the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet" as a structure in developing their plan.

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "Building Strategies Worksheet"
"BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet"
"Career Development Programs: Strategies for Integration"
(See X.C.2.)
Attached articles: "The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools"
(Mann, 1976)
"Summary of Postsecondary/Higher Education Literature Review" (see section X of this packet)
References: Havelock (1973); Blocher (1975); Davis, Alexander & Yalon (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete the "Building Strategies Worksheet" transferring that information to the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet."

BUILDING STRATEGIES WORKSHEET

1. Review strategies X.E.1, "Range of Change Strategies," and X.E.2., "Commitment to Change."

2. Make a list of strategies you feel are possible using the strategies above, those from small-group brainstorms, and others you feel are appropriate.

3. Now, go back and put list in priority with most important being number one.

4. List pros and cons for each strategy.

5. Now, translate your strategies to the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet."

BORN FREE PRELIMINARY IMPLEMENTATION PLAN WORKSHEET

Strategy	Resources	Need Area	Target Pop.	Behavioral Goals	Who's Responsible	Evaluation	When	Cost	Go/ No-Go

*THE POLITICS OF TRAINING TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS**

by Dale Mann

In the recent past, it has been relatively easy to effect school reform through teacher turnover and recruitment. As long as teacher mobility remained high, a principal could count on replacing perhaps as much as one-fifth of the staff in a year. But now and for the foreseeable future, mobility will be greatly constricted by the teacher surplus, the availability of maternity leaves, the need for multiple incomes per family, and the effects of unionization. School reform must now be accomplished through existing personnel. More than ever before, those who seek to change schools must change teachers while they are working in the schools. The euphemism for that is staff development.

The results reported here were developed as part of The Rand Corporation's study of United States Office of Education-supported change-agent programs. The analysis and the conclusions in the current paper are the result of a secondary analysis of the data and are the author's sole responsibility.[1] The field sites selected for study were located in all parts of the country and in communities ranging from a rural hamlet to a megalopolis. The field team conducted 50 to 100 interviews in each place visited. The number of schools visited in each place varied from five to twenty. Interviews began at the top of the system and followed the project down through the administrative hierarchy to the teachers in the various schools. This article concentrates on describing a process of (1) initiation, (2) implementation, (3) partisan mutual adaptation, (4) continuation, and (5) dissemination/diffusion which has been generalized from the data. It uses illustrations as often as possible but necessarily concentrates on a process description, not on the description of multiple contexts. The reader is invited to compare this analysis with his or her own experience and with the case materials available from The Rand Corporation.[2]

THE INITIATION PHASE

Why and how did the projects begin? Where did the idea come from? How much support was necessary from how many people?

The literature on planned change stresses the importance of a high level of felt need for change. The idea occurs in two different forms: (1) the "goal seeking" or "rational" model in which the impetus for change comes from a desire to move to a preferred future; and (2) a

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*From: Teacher's College Record, 1976, 77(3), pp. 323-338. Permission to reprint granted by Teachers College Record.

"problem solving" orientation in which dissatisfaction with current situations prompts a definitive remedy. *None* of these projects were initiated in response to a significantly felt need to change among school staff. In fact, it was always assumed that the objects of the project's efforts, those people who were to be "developed" (changed) would resist that effort, deny the project's utility, and otherwise be obstacles to change. Most projects came into being because of a small cell of persons who operated independently of or in opposition to the wishes of district superordinates and the trainee group as well.

Most school districts store their needs in a bottomless pit. When outside money appears, the district fishes around the pit until it finds a need that matches the announced purposes of the soft money. That need is then elevated to the status of a priority in order to demonstrate the district's commitment, and not incidentally in order to capture the bucks. The process is exactly why so many districts object to having their programs jerked around by program-specific, rather than general or bloc, assistance. The point here is that the process invalidates the central tenet of a district-based goal-seeking model of change. From the federal government's viewpoint, the opportunism evident in this process is probably useful since it demonstrates district responsiveness (at least initially) to a federal agenda. Because it is less grand, "problem solving" seems to be a slightly more accurate characterization of the motives for initiation. But the "problem solving" approach was one in which districts moved not so much toward any carefully conceptualized future, as away from whatever problems were most pressing and which could be ameliorated (note, not "solved") by someone else's money.[3]

The planning activity is a noticeable departure from the synoptic rational model. If the practice of searching for alternatives implies a conscious search for the different options available in some universe of potential solutions prior to initiating the project, then there simply was no such search. The alternatives considered were those that were immanent in the experience or education of the small group of project initiators. Planning in the sense of programming or scheduling might have been provoked by the requirements of federal grants. We did find a relationship between extensive planning and the success of the projects, but the explanation for that lay not in intrinsic value of the planning activity but in the fact that the most successful projects were also the most ambitious, complicated and thus demanding of good planning.

Since most districts now recognize that they can take virtually any amount of someone else's money to attempt almost any task, they regard the proposal process fatalistically. But it is impossible to predict the development and results of an untested intervention in a complex and unknown behavioral system. Only in trivial (and uninteresting) circumstances can there be a behaviorally adequate prior specification of the sort necessary to support detailed planning (and the subsequent accountability for the realization of that plan). Two important consequences follow. First, in most districts the possibility of good planning is prematurely deprecated; second, the resulting cynicism causes people to fall far short of the achievements they might otherwise realize.

Widespread participation in planning is supposed to be a *sine qua non* of successful projects. But since the projects were designed to improve purportedly deficient behavior, asking those needy people to become involved would have been embarrassing. In no case did target groups select themselves as the focus of change. In general, they were unaware of what was to happen to them, or if they knew of the projects' existence, its goals were stated in such softy-lofty terms that no one could object. Opposition increased as the specific identification of the trainee group (e.g., high school math teachers, special ed curriculum developers, etc.) increased. Precise purposes, although good from a planning standpoint, increased conflict.

The best summary characterization of the initiation process in these cases was (a) the recognition of some outside resources which might (b) be applied to an emergent generalized need for change in someone else's behavior as determined by a small group of middle-level people, who then (c) plunged into the first project treatment that satisfied them and the funding agency.

THE IMPLEMENTATION PHASE

Project Characteristics. Implementation begins when the project settles down to the hard work of trying to influence teacher behavior. But the vast majority of teachers believed in what they were already doing, not in what some newly arrived change-agent project wanted them to do. The teachers' convictions may not be firmly held or clearly displayed, but their own professional behavior remained a basic point of orientation. That situation created a dilemma for all projects. The more in need of change was the group, the more important it was that they not be invidiously labeled.[4] Thus, most projects used public goals that were more than usually amorphous.

We also considered how far the project's goals diverged from those of the district. On the face of it, a set of operational goals at odds with those of the larger district is not too much to expect from a change-oriented activity. We found instead a strong need for protective coloration. To survive, it was necessary for the teachers to believe that the project represented only a relatively small change in their existing practices. Schools are continuing organizations and their preproject methods are a sort of distribution of benefits and power and are thus the objects of fierce loyalty. Although to the outsider preexisting goals may seem to be meaningless generalities, they have frequently been the focus of bitter conflict, and only painfully resolved. A direct challenge to those goals might stop the change-agent challenger by destroying access and by mobilizing the opposition. The notion of change as an organizational *summum bonum* which is held in such esteem by various levels above the local school is, in fact, a kiss-of-death handicap in the testing ground for innovation. Since many of these same schools and districts are the most in need of change, the committed change agent is presented with an interesting choice between candor and effectiveness.

Where the goals of the project included attention to strongly held cultural values (attitudes about race, ethnic pluralism, student responsibilities), the projects tended to concentrate on the supposedly more neutral and technical aspects of pedagogy and consistently avoided engaging in controversies. Thus, projects that started out to deal with race ended up working on instructional techniques.

The amount of change attempted is another goal-related characteristic. Even though they could not broadcast their intentions, the best projects set out to make a big difference, to help people to depart substantially and radically from their previous patterns. Less successful projects contributed more to organizational maintenance than to organizational change. Big change aspirations seemed to be functional because they provided their participants with early motivation and commitment and because when the inevitable compromises came (see "Adaptation" below), ambitious projects could still salvage a significant portion of their purpose. A second measure of the ambition of a project is the extent or "critical mass" of its intended changes. Here the strong social sanctions of the schools as a small band of professionals exerted itself very strongly. An occasional maverick could buck those sanctions and implement the changed behavior in isolation. But mostly schools singled out these rate-busters and deprecated or ostracized them until they regressed to the mean. Change is frequently an indictment of existing practice and of existing practitioners; in its field reality, it is not a state devoutly to be sought, nor is it a clinical, bloodless, consensual process. It was resisted by teachers who were threatened by it. For these reasons, it was important to succeed with enough of a school building's staff to provide a potentially self-contained unit. Allowing for defections, backsliding, and partial implementation, that usually meant not fewer than 20-25 percent of the school's staff had to be thoroughly indoctrinated in project techniques.

Considering project treatments, the first aspect is the complexity of the design. Complexity was not related to size. We saw very simple projects that were enormously costly; on the other hand, one of the most successful projects was fabulously and endlessly complicated--a sort of educational Gaudi design. This is a curious finding since the probability of successful implementation would seem to go down as the number of necessary precursor contingencies goes up. Yet the most successful projects relied on various inputs, the availability of different sorts of actor attitudes, long chains of changes and events, and so on. The message may be that no lesser sort of effort will suffice and the risks of complexity are a necessary condition for success.

The most successful projects tailor-made and prepackaged their own materials. Locally developed curriculum counteracted the parochiality of teachers, most of whom believed that no one else could possibly know anything of *their* situations. When the trainers wrote their own guides and curricula, they knew them better and believed in them more than if they had simply adopted preexisting materials. Successful materials were those which offered early successes and a number of alternate points of entry (e.g., classroom physical organization, child self-concept, diagnostic procedure, etc.) so that teachers could begin wherever they felt they needed help. The availability of material rewards was not a significant incentive for teachers to start the training, but it was a useful reinforcement to continue it. In an area where graduate training is notorious for the level of its standards, it is interesting to note that three of the projects incorporated tough-minded evaluation of what the trainees had or had not acquired. One project was especially active in that regard. Failure to pass a component competence examination was a relatively frequent experience, but rather than being discouraged, the trainees seemed to feel that it contributed credibility to the training experience and distinguished it from many of the demeaning "Mickey Mouse" institutes and workshops to which they had been subjected.

The most powerful programs had the following characteristics:

1. The simple availability, over time, of the training staff as a source of help on the trainees' demand and on the trainees' problems. This reduced the teachers' apprehension that change projects meant more unrealistic work for them.

2. The provision of a demonstration lesson done by the trainer with the trainees' classes but with no participation or responsibility on the part of the trainee. That helped establish the trainer's credibility and the treatment's feasibility.

3. Provision of multimedia, multitopic, self-paced, auto-instructional teaching packages for the trainees' independent use. It should be kept in mind that many teachers do not like to read.

4. The credible, non-individious, independent evaluation of individual progress at relatively frequent intervals by people outside the teacher's school-based chain of command and unrelated to the teacher's "official," permanent-record performance evaluation. Only one project was able with impunity to incorporate the principal's participation in the teacher's evaluation. Needless to say, that place did not have a union or even a strong teachers' association.

Projects that aspire to teacher change must deal with the teacher's boss--the principal. The projects which achieved the least of their own change-oriented agendas did so in large part because building principals redirected or subverted project efforts at the school building level. Most building principals did not favor staff development efforts that challenged their traditional role as the instructional leader, master teacher, or chief teacher trainer in the school. Also, the project was almost bound to try to move teachers away from practices that had already been sanctioned by the responsible head of the school, the principal. Few principals opposed the district's initiation of projects, but many opposed project efforts once they had crossed the school's threshold.

Two projects tried to do an end-run around the principals to the teachers. One case succeeded because of the passivity and unsophistication of that group of principals. In the other case, the principals lost a few of the early battles and then won the war with a sort of "scorched earth" strategy directed against project personnel. Project goals did not completely govern resource allocation but did so in combination with other criteria such as (a) the prior social access of the training staff to trainees, (b) the accessibility of grade levels to treatment, (c) the demands of a particular treatment, and (d) idiosyncratic, largely uncontrolled, and largely unanticipated factors. Resource allocation patterns attested to the power of the principals. Where principals controlled, they used resources largely to maintain and buttress the status quo (cover ordinary classes, act as substitutes, etc.). Where project people controlled, project purposes were better served, and where, because of political opposition from the principals, they could not be served at least the project staff was in a stronger position to negotiate terms of the compromises.

Evaluation in the sense of *informal* but serious stock taking by project staff and district clientele was an important activity in the most successful projects. They paid attention to it and they changed because of it. Evaluation in the sense of *formal* project assessment for the state and federal grantors was done to continue to qualify for money, not for its utility to project management.

Trainee Characteristics. The people to be developed strongly influenced the success or failure of the projects. The higher the grade level, the more resistant to training was the teacher. No project was able to have any impact on a high school. A number of things about high schools seemed to be at work here.

1. High school teachers relate to their topical fields more than to an overall schooling mission. While most change projects emphasized process, high school teachers consistently subordinated process considerations to topic coverage.

2. Topic specialization provides an organizing base which makes high school teachers believe themselves to be superior to their lower grade colleagues. That specialization strengthens defenses against outsiders and makes resistance to change easier and more effective.

3. Many high school faculties are often already split into antagonistic groups of "core," "solids" or "academic" teachers and "electives" teachers. The lack of cooperation among those factions makes things like scheduling changes and team teaching very difficult to realize. Norms of local unanimity further freeze this situation. (One group's cohesively expressed desires will not be interfered with by another group.)

4. The baby boom has not yet ebbed in the high schools which remain relatively overcrowded, thus affording teachers there less free time and organizational slack than is currently available in lower grades.

5. High school teachers deal more briefly with many more and older students and thus tend to blame the anonymous mass of threatening students more than themselves for the failure of schooling. Students who fail or who are failed by the high school simply go away and are not persistent problems within the same organization. These factors diminish the sense of personal responsibility and thus the felt need to change.

6. Because high schools are large and more specialized with more intermediate organizational layers, high school teachers are less dependent on their principals than are elementary school teachers and thus are more insulated by the chain of command.

7. High school faculties are usually more unionized than their elementary colleagues and thus less malleable with respect to "extra" demands of training programs.

8. There is less exogenous pressure on high schools.

The other strong relationship in the area of trainee characteristics had to do with the way in which teachers joined the project. Most projects devoted the bulk of their resources to and had greatest impact on volunteers. The volunteers tended to be "friends and neighbors" of the project staff members; as a more congenial group sharing many assumptions, the initial training was easier to conduct and moved faster. Since most projects had been designed for work with a more difficult population, the early successes with the volunteers were gratifying, especially so for the people who were uncertain about the sufficiency and reception of their techniques and who needed early successes to justify their further efforts. In addition, special projects which were untried and struggling for credibility and support seldom had the political clout to require participation. Often the premises of the training techniques (organizational development, for example) made it inappropriate to force participation. The teachers' organizations, their regular responsibilities, and their professional status usually were sufficient protection from such mandates anyway. Thus, the focus was placed on a training population of volunteers.

Unfortunately, that early concentration on volunteers had some deleterious effects. It misled trainers about what to expect. It encouraged them to modify their training agenda based on experiences with volunteers which then would not work at all when (or if) the project took on a nonvolunteer audience. Third, it created obligations and expectations for continued service which subtly steered the project's resources back toward the most receptive audiences--the volunteers. But, since most volunteers already agreed with the project's premises and were eager for its treatment (why else volunteer?) the result was to allocate the most resources where they were least needed. The whole sequence is as understandable as it is serious in its impact on program direction and success.

The extent to which trainees perceived a need for their own (further) development is an important but complicated characteristic. Where would the support for development come from? Where projects were initiated because of a particular crisis (e.g., racial outbursts, rampant drug abuse), the perceived need often related only to that crisis and not to underlying causes. When the crisis was resolved the impetus for change disappeared. What should be done in the absence of a perceived need to change? Once the project had exhausted its pool of volunteers, the rest of the potential population was likely to feel that they were doing well without the project. The vivid shift that occurred in this single behavioral characteristic--from those who wanted the project's treatment to those who didn't--would seem to dictate two distinctly different training techniques, yet *no* projects made an adequate response to that shift.

The defensive characteristics of the nonvolunteer audience need some explanation. As a whole, teachers must try to perform virtually impossible tasks with a technology that is inadequate or simply wrong. Defensiveness and secretiveness are understandable attitudes where the circumstances demand a professional, pedagogical role performance even though there is no sufficient knowledge about what causes good teaching and learning. Also, because teachers recognize that they are supposed to perform intellectual tasks, and because their intellect is clearly on display in most kinds of professional interaction (especially in training sessions), the safest performance is the least performance. Thus, to guard themselves from negative evaluation, they simply clammed up. It is hard to train clams.

There is a lot of debate in the literature about the heterophilous/homophilous nature of the trainers in relation to the trainees. The most successful trainers we encountered were those who had paid their dues in the instant client system but who were at some emotional, professional, and tactical distance from it. The most effective trainers seemed naively enthusiastic and maintained that enthusiasm in the face of reality.

Many projects used outside consultants in an attempt to get critical attitudes and the freedom to act on them. All of the projects which employed outside consultants as trainers dropped them after the first year. They were simply not credible enough, responsive enough, or available enough to succeed.

Organizational and Personal Characteristics. The project's location in relation to the bureaucracy of the schools was an important characteristic. Teachers depend on their principals for many critical things (desirable teaching assignments, free time, scheduling cooperation, materials and supplies, promotions, protection from parents and other "outsiders," approbation, and exemption from scores of harrassing, petty regulations). Where the principal refused to allow carpet squares in a teacher's classroom (they were alleged to "breed vermin") or where the principal could reduce a teacher to tears in front of her colleagues for allowing "noise" (children talking to children) or where a principal could dump *all* of the school's behavior problems on a teacher as a reward for her newly acquired teaching skills in the area of learning disabilities--then teachers thought *very* carefully about their principal's reaction. The training project and staff were temporary phenomena; soon enough the teacher would be left to make peace with the school's permanent authority figure. This anticipated reaction among the training population was central to the success or failure of projects and it gave every principal a built-in lever to influence the teachers' responses to the development effort.

Thus, every project identified the system's principals as a critical force. Only one project even attempted to buck the principals, entering schools and conducting a training session on the authority of the superintendent--a practice that lasted until the principals' association forced the board to rescind the superintendent's authority! More commonly, the project announced the district-wide availability of its services in tones of muted assertiveness, but when the trainers crossed the school's threshold they worked with teachers chosen by the principal, on problems identified by the principal, and with success determined by the principal. More happily, principals sometimes exercised plenary power to reinforce the project. But, since change is almost necessarily a challenge to authority, that was rare. In those few cases where principals did support the projects, the changes were as swift and dramatic as a proposal writer's fondest dream.

Few effects came through more clearly than the salutary consequences of personal commitment on these projects. Where the staff believed in what they were doing, the projects had a much greater chance to flourish. Could project features themselves encourage that commitment? The most useful incentive seems to have been the visibility or mobility of project personnel. The more successful projects were run by people who reported changes in their career prospects while the less successful projects were run by people who were comfortably resigned to falling back to classroom teaching at the project's conclusion. The explanation for this is probably related to the animosity which vigorous change attempts engendered. Successful people needed a way to escape from the district and were glad to have it; less successful people could easily sink back into the organizations which they had never challenged. A number of factors of personal demography (age, training, sex, etc.) were checked but found to be unrelated to success.

PARTISAN MUTUAL ADAPTATION

Adaptation deals with the impact of the school on the project. We had hypothesized that a great deal of the reported outcomes (and especially short-falls) of change-agent projects could be attributed to the school's transmogrification of the projects which were supposed to have changed the school. All projects displayed a clear and similar pattern of adaptation. With the passage of time they: (a) became less ambitious about the system-wide effects they sought; (b) simplified their treatments; (c) slowed the pace of their activities; (d) decreased the amount of changed behavior expected from any individual; and (e) decreased their expectations about how many people within a site could be changed.

Three of the projects examined initially intended to retrain teachers at all levels of their systems, K-12. All three began with a focus on the elementary school teacher population but never succeeded in coming to grips with the high schools. Ordinarily, a project starts out with a very ambitious agenda of change, in part in order to capture funds. But after the original funding has been secured, there is a need to justify continued funding and that means demonstrating success with much more discrete, measurable phenomena than those in the original agenda. Unfortunately, although superficially precise, the measured phenomena are only a small and usually not very important fragment of the project's goals. One project that began as a total curriculum revolution had its most successful and widespread implementation in the teaching of spelling.

A similar phenomenon operated to reduce the risk involved in a project. Broad and sincere attempts to change organizations and people encountered vivid resistance. Resisting the resistance burned up the project's capital. When the staff began to appreciate how slow and costly change is, they often scaled down their goals to match the available resources. Thus projects which started out to end illiteracy ended up trying to teach any kids just a little bit about anything. Projects that had tried for individualized instruction satisfied themselves with having achieved differentiated small(er) group interaction. Problem solving gave way to remediation. Revolution gave way to reform.

Similar processes operated to simplify the project treatment. The panoply of services and activities and the sequences of phases and events which characterized the early stages were diluted as they were transferred from the project leadership to the training staff to the trainees. In one project, for example, a consulting firm which specialized in organizational development tried to teach that technology in capsule form to a group of teachers who were then actually to conduct the OD interventions in their home schools. The result was that one group (the consultants) had all the technology and no responsibility while the teachers had only a little technology and all the responsibility. Predictably, the teachers only employed the simplest and "safest" of the techniques. The training audience also acted to prune the treatment. The real world knocks a lot of the edges off the ivory tower original conceptualizations. (Parenthetically we wish to report the discovery of quite a few ivory towers located not in universities but in district headquarters.) Thus, some project materials were cut by half, the amount of collateral reading was reduced, the length of training exposure was shortened, etc. Treatments also were simplified by being captured. Trainers arriving at the school with an elaborate training routine often discovered that the principal or the teacher-clients had other ideas about how the project staff should be used. A related phenomenon has to do with the fact that sufficient behavioral intervention is a time-consuming process which, because it is so costly, can only be made available to a relatively small group of people. But where the project was viewed as a benefit or "goodie" to be distributed, there was often pressure to make that benefit available to as many people as possible. Thus, in order to spread the benefit to more people (and, not incidentally, to build a base of political support), the treatment was thinned and applied to more people, but with less effect on any given person.

Another phenomenon probably accounts for even more of these projects' actual outcomes. That phenomenon deals with the tiny changes made at the margins of the instructional behavior of a great many teachers. Although the bulk of their practice might still appall the project staff, it remains a significant achievement if, after the project, "trained" teachers hit *fewer* students, allowed *slightly* more interaction, praised *slightly* more often, and so on. Not only are such changes barely visible and usually barely conscious, many teachers strain to deny them or at least deny that the project introduced them. The defensiveness of quasi-professionals is such that many teachers with whom we talked deprecated project techniques and praised traditional instruction. But their classrooms sometimes featured wall charts of student behavior, interest centers, and the paraphernalia of differentiated instruction. When asked to explain those features, they would claim to have been doing those things all along or to have invented them themselves, although in fact that was not the case. In assessing the total impact of these projects, the contribution of these two groups--the isolated "loners" and the "denying doers"--needs to be added to the more dramatic and rare instances of schoolwide transformation.

In only one instance was the fate of the project of extreme interest to the district's superordinates. In that case, the project constituted 90 percent of their attempts at reforming the district, and thus they regarded it very highly. In another case, the project's resources were the only leverage available to a superordinate although he simply could not get a handle on them fast enough to turn a floundering activity to his own advantage. In most cases, superordinates were mildly pleased to have the projects as symbols of their modernity but indifferent to the outcomes.

The figure which follows summarizes the features of the most and least successful cases along with one "mixed case."

CONTINUATION

The key question here is, what characteristics of the project were likely to be continued after the end of federal support? Because of our one-time data collection exigencies, this judgment was in large part an informed guesstimate. The continuation of project efforts in the most

(continued on page 632)

SUMMARIZED PROJECT CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO AMOUNT OF SUCCESS

The Least Successful Cases

Case #4	*Case #5*
• Interrupted leadership. Some commitment but also uncertainty about content of techniques.	• Changing leadership. No confidence in techniques. Status quo orientation.
• No real goals. Search for problems which might be helped.	• Goals of organizational maintenance.
• Change from bottom up.	• No change intended.
• Simple project treatment.	• Laissez-faire, situationally determined project treatments.
• Consultant provision of materials with little on-site development. No trainee progress evaluation. Relevance only to one part of the teacher's role (participation in management).	• No materials. High role relevance.
• Strong theoretical base but among consulting group, not project staff.	• No theoretical base.
• Limited availability of staff to project treatment.	• High availability of staff to project treatment.
• No rewards, only risks.	• No rewards.
• Low felt need among a knowledgeable but complacent and suspicious population.	• No felt need among a veteran and extremely resistant population.
• Superordinate opposition; opposition from principals.	• Superordinate support; subversion by principals.
• No peer group support. No critical mass.	• Same as #4.

(cont.)

The Two Most Successful Cases

Case #1	*Case #2*
• An integral, highly committed management group that stayed with the project from its initiation on. The group provided itself with social and material support against opposition.	• Same as #1 plus overtones of true-believer, messianic and revolutionary spirit.
• A goal of substantial transformation in the most important areas of the district's teaching practices.	• A goal of revolutionary change in all parts of the system.
• Change initiated from the central office middle management level down.	• Change initiated from the higher reaches of the central office down.
• A relatively complicated project treatment with several components and sequences.	• An extremely complicated and comprehensive treatment.
• Strong emphasis on on-site development of materials and written curriculum. Material to allow multiple entry points, teacher pacing, and independent but non-invidious evaluation. Highly role-relevant training.	• Same as #1.
	• Strong theoretical base.
• Availability of some staff assistance on site.	• Limited on-site staff assistance. Some demonstration lessons.
• Some material rewards as reinforcement for continuation not as incentive to begin.	• Same as #1.
• Very high felt need among an innocent and trusting training population.	• High felt need among an innocent but xenophobic training population. Some teacher motion in a direction the project could reinforce.
• No opposition; some principal support.	• Opposition and very little limited support from principals.
• Peer group support in the schools and several critical masses.	• More limited supported and fewer critical masses.

(cont.)

The Mixed Case

Case #3

This case is different from the others in that the project leadership refused to force the pace of the training activities until they felt that the majority of the school's faculty wanted to change and had assimilated an OD truth/trust attitude. Thus, in the first two years of what was nominally a project to differentiate instruction, there had been no attempt to communicate technology or content of staff development.

- A single leader through the project but a management group which was elected by the teachers and thus fluctuated. Some cohesion against opposition.
- A goal of substantial change in several areas but patience about the rate of progress.
- Top support and several superordinate moves that paralleled and reinforced the project's moves.
- A persistent stress on a single theme (truth-trust) to date.
- A fetish about bootstraps. Total on-site determination of project activities but few materials. Independent, non-invidious evaluation. Focus to date not perceived as being very role relevant.
- Material but not staff assistance to trainees. No demonstration lessons.
- High felt need among a frustrated and suspicious population.
- No opposition; support from principal.
- Very strong peer group support and critical mass, but at only one grade level.

successful district appeared assured if only because the materials and procedures produced remained intact and the training activities were never dependent on pacing or guidance by the teachers themselves. Thus the project's dissolution left a stock of materials with which many of the district's teachers already had a favorable experience. To add to that happy prospect, the project staff had lobbied hard to have completion of parts of the training materials accepted as qualification for a higher step on the district's pay scale. Then, when the state education department required all districts to come up with a new set of performance competencies for recertification of their faculties, the project staff successfully inserted their project's own list of desired teacher outcomes. All teachers must now pay more attention to those standards. Since the project never had to face any significant opposition and since a high proportion of the district's teachers have had a favorable experience with the training, the prospects for the continuation of the project's activities (but not of the project itself) seem good.

Similar points may be made with respect to the other or the clearly successful project sites. There, the staff anticipated from the beginning that the reemergence of the conservative forces would inevitably overwhelm the project. Part of the staff's drive to produce a great many materials and to infiltrate all parts of the bureaucracy was in preparation for that contingency. The hope was that out of a "blanket" or "cascade" of services, some would survive. In addition to that fishegg strategy, in order to guard against backsliding on the part of project personnel who were returning to their former (unreconstructed) environs, all such personnel were required to undergo the complete training cycle a second time. The project's enemies have moved vigorously against it, but the project has "gone underground" and thus many activities should survive.

In the mixed case school, where enactment of many of the project's goals and technology has been substantially delayed, it is very hard to predict continuation. The theoretical justification for emphasizing interpersonal communications is to ensure that the ensuing changes will be more profound and more lasting. So one hopes.

For the other schools, the most that can be hoped for is that those relatively fewer teachers whose behavior was affected will not return to their old patterns of behavior. There is evidence to support that expectation. Most of the teachers whose instructional practices were changed as a result of these projects were already somewhat dissatisfied with their performance or became persuaded of its inadequacy. There was agreement that it would be impossible to move back to large group, teacher-talk instruction and, to a person, our respondents denied that they ever would. Thus, at the atomistic but still important level of the individual, continuation seems to have a reasonable prospect.

DISSEMINATION DIFFUSION

The key question here was whether the project was disseminated to other schools or districts. Only two projects demonstrated any real impact on schools other than the original target schools. In both cases that effort was linked to the personal drive of the project's leadership. In one case, the leader was a former professor who had a habit of publication and a need for career-enhancing publicity. In the other case, the project director had set up a statewide organization of project directors as a defense against what he felt was SEA interference. He did a lot of speaking, inevitably about his own experiences, and therefore received a lot of publicity, visitors, and requests for information from his colleagues.

All projects felt hampered by SEA and federal regulations putting stringent conditions on their dissemination activities. In the absence of any broader audience, the only people to whom the project might be diffused were the other schools in each district. That did not happen either.

It was a universal experience of these projects that, regardless of their degree of success, they were studiously ignored by their district colleagues. Although the school may have been a virtual Walden III, visitors were still more likely to come from 200 miles away than from two miles away. The educator's insecurity is probably the chief explanation for this. Someone working in the same environment with roughly the same resources who does a demonstrably better job is seen as a threat, a show-off, and probably a cheat. The same phenomenon applies among faculties. Teacher trainers are much more acceptable when they travel to neighboring schools than when they try to ply their trade in their own schools. The educator's response is to ignore the lighthouse school if it is close to home and instead go far enough away so that (a) asking for help can be a more anonymous and "safer" experience; (b) it won't be necessary to acknowledge the superiority of someone with whom you are in competition; and (c) the ideas can be changed with impunity and then (d) credited to one's self.

FOOTNOTES

1. The interested reader is referred to the complete reports from the first year of the project. See especially Peter W. Greenwood, Dale Mann, and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. III: The Process of Change* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/3-HEW, April 1975). Other volumes relevant to the first year of this project are: Paul Berman and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. I: A Model of Educational Change* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/1-HEW, April 1975); Paul Berman and Edward W. Pauly, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. II: Factors Affecting Change Agent Projects* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/2-HEW, April 1975); Paul Berman and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. IV: The Findings in Review* (Santa Monica, Calif.:

Rand Corporation, R-1589/4-HEW, April 1975); and Paul Berman, Peter W. Greenwood, Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin, and John Pincus, *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. V: Executive Summary* (Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, R-1589/5-HEW, April 1975).

2. The complete staff development cases are available in "Appendix A" of Greenwood, Mann, and McLaughlin, *op. cit.*

3. Since we were looking only at places with federally supported projects, it is obvious that those places were using someone else's money. Clearly there are other, indigenous problem-solving efforts--reorganizing, program redirection, new program starts and so on.

4. This holds only for models of cooperative and semicooperative change. Where conflict is to be the engine of change, prior labeling may very well be a good tactic to get the target group's attention. Many people deny the possibility of any change in education except through the cooperative route. On the basis of these cases, that attitude seems as much a description of the problem as a valid conclusion. The purpose of public policy remains the regular achievement of public goods--under many circumstances but especially in instances of conflict or disagreement which are after all the most significant environment for public policy.

CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN (CONT.)

Session III: Implementing and Evaluating

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to help participants further develop their plans, paying close attention to process objectives, staff development, prioritizing of strategies and initiating/monitoring activities.

Instructions:

a. Describe the agenda for the session and set time allotments for the activities.

b. Have participants reconvene in their small groups and share briefly (five minutes each) the completed work from session II. Allow sufficient time for participants to react to the work completed and provide suggestions for other participants.

c. Continuing in small groups, have participants discuss the variables of implementation (see "Important Questions to Consider"), with particular emphasis placed on evaluation (see attached handouts on evaluation).

d. Summarize. Leader should present short overview on consultation including various methods of evaluation. Ask participants to complete their "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet" and prepare to present a brief summary of their plan in Session IV.

Minimum Time Required: 45 minutes for sharing and reacting to preliminary plans
45 minutes for completion of preliminary plan

Resources Needed:

Handouts: "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet" (from Session II)
"Important Questions to Consider"
"Evaluation as an Integral Part of a Program"
"Some Definitions of Evaluation"
References: Havelock (1973); Davis, Alexander & Yalon (1974); Tennyson, Hansen, Klaurens & Antholz (1975); Benson (Ch. 3 - "Use of Consultation," 1975); Parker (1975); Argyris (1973)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete the "BORN FREE Implementation Plan Worksheet" and complete outline of their BORN FREE Implementation Plan for their home institutions.

X.F.3.
(cont'd.)
(Session III)

IMPORTANT QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

(To Be Used with the "BORN FREE Preliminary Implementation Plan Worksheet")

1. What is my commitment? How much time and energy can I give to this plan?

2. Have I conducted an adequate systems diagnosis/needs assessment? Have I developed my goals, objectives, rationale? What is my conceptual framework?

3. Do I know my support system? (formal/informal, direct/indirect)

4. Where/who are my resources? (human, financial, other)

5. Have I identified the strategies for change? The strategies for implementation? What are the alternative strategies?

6. What time lines have I developed?

7. How will I evaluate the elements of my implementation plan?

8. What resistances are apparent? How do I hope to handle these resistances? Are there areas of potential resistance?

9. What incentives/rewards will I provide for those involved in the change process?

10. Are my consultation skills adequate? What are my deficiencies in this area? Who/what might assist me in this process?

11. What is the real substance of my implementation plan? Is it realistic? Is it feasible? Is it manageable?

12. Have I obtained commitment from those to be affected by the change (e.g., administrators, teachers, parents, etc.)?

EVALUATION AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF A PROGRAM

WHY?	Needs Assessment	What needs can you cite that justify the existence of this program?
WHAT?	Developing Objectives	What are your objectives in the program, i.e., what objectives will the program accomplish to meet the needs under WHY?
HOW?	Program Planning	How will you design the program so that it will meet its objectives?
HOW WILL YOU KNOW?	Evaluation	What kinds of information should be gathered so that you know if the HOW is meeting the WHAT for the WHY?

X.F.3.
(cont'd.)
(Session III)

SOME DEFINITIONS OF EVALUATION

1. A process designed to assist management to obtain reasonably objective information about projects and programs in a regular fashion so that lessons learned can be applied to current planning decisions and future operations.

2. The process of determining the value or effectiveness of something for the purpose of decision making.

3. The process of determining the decision areas of concern and then selecting, collecting, analyzing, and providing significant information to help decision makers choose among alternatives.

4. a. It begins with the question "What are the consequences?" rather than the more limiting question "What are the objectives?"

   b. Its style of inquiry is more aptly characterized by the word "exploration" than the word "control."

   c. It sees the role of the evaluator as that of social scientist rather than that of a teacher, missionary, or reformer.

   d. Its purpose is to provide more complex bases for informed judgment.

CREATING AN IMPLEMENTATION PLAN (CONT.)

Session IV: Sharing and Wrap-Up

Note to Leader:

This session is designed to provide wrap-up on implementation plans. Participants will share the outline of their plan with their small group.

Instructions:

a. Describe the agenda for the session and set time allotments for the activities.

b. Have the small groups reconvene. Ask each group to select a recorder to record the highlights of the implementation plan.

c. Ask participants to share their outline of their implementation plan in their small group. Group members are to serve as resource persons, providing reactions and suggestions to the plans.

d. Have the recorders report the highlights of the plans to the large group.

e. Summarize.

f. Have the participants submit two copies of their outlines to the leader for critiques and suggestions. The leader should then return one copy of the critiqued plan to the participants for use in further development of their plan.

Minimum Time Required: 1 1/2 hours

Resources Needed:

References: Havelock (1973); Blocher (1975); Jones, Dayton & Gelatt (1977); Benson (Ch. 5, 1975); Davis, Alexander & Yalon (1974)

Outcome Criterion:

Participants will complete and share their BORN FREE Implementation Plan with the entire group, providing the completed copy for the session leader.

XIII. REFERENCES

REFERENCES

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Wentz, F. Inclusive language to proclaim an inclusive gospel. In L. Althouse & L. Snook (Eds.), In God's image. New York: DMNA/LCA, 1976.

Westervelt, E. M. Barriers to women's participation in postsecondary education: A review of research and commentary as of 1973-74. (National Center for Education Statistics.) Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1975.

Westervelt, E. M., & Fixter, D. A. Women's higher and continuing education: An annotated bibliography with selected references on related aspects of women's lives. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1971.

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APPENDIX

A. BORN FREE PRODUCTS AND PUBLICATIONS

BORN FREE is a training and development program to broaden the range of career options for both women and men. Funded through the Women's Educational Equity Act Program, U.S. Office of Education, the program aims to create transportable career development training modules (training packets, workshop designs, nine videotapes, and viewers' guides) for parents, teachers, counselors, and administrators at all educational levels, kindergarten through higher education. The shortened title of Project BORN FREE is an acronym that expresses exactly what the project is about: Build Options, Reassess Norms, Free Roles through Educational Equity.

The 14 schools and higher education institutions participating in the project are Lincoln Elementary, Sunrise Junior High, and Mariner High School in White Bear Lake; Webster Elementary, Mounds Park Junior High, and Washington High School (replacing the St. Paul Open School, which participated in the Project during the first year) in St. Paul; Harley Hopkins Elementary, North Junior High, and Eisenhower High School in Hopkins. The higher education institutions involved in BORN FREE are Lakewood Community College, Normandale Community College, #916 Vocational Technical Institute, CLA Career Planning Office (University of Minnesota), and Augsburg College, Minneapolis.

During the first year of project operation, teams of teachers/professors and counselors/student personnel workers were named in each setting to identify needs and assess the career-related sex-role stereotyping in existence. Together with project staff from the University, primarily graduate students in Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, the teams produced training materials to reduce career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions. These materials and one completed videotape, "A World of Options," were field-tested at a local BORN FREE Summer Institute in 1977 at the University of Minnesota. Forty counselors, teachers, and administrators from the 14 institutions participating in BORN FREE attended the two-week Institute.

In the second year of project operation, the 40 participants from the local Summer Institute worked with the field-site members from the first year to implement BORN FREE activities in their respective schools and colleges. These activities have included in-service workshops and field-testing BORN FREE training materials.

The University of Minnesota staff served as consultants to the field-site teams during BORN FREE's second year. In addition, the staff revised the field-tested training materials, completed the remaining videotapes, developed the Video Viewers' Guides, and completed product and process reports. The University staff has consisted of a director, two administrative assistants, one general project assistant, three project assistants/consultants, one media specialist, three evaluators, a full-time secretary and a part-time clerk-typist. All of the staff except the secretary had a part-time appointment, mostly half-time.

A BORN FREE National Institute was held June, 1978, at the University of Minnesota. Over one hundred educators were selected to attend the institute. According to the original plan for the institute, each state was to be represented by one counselor and one instructor or administrator from various developmental levels, kindergarten through higher education. This plan was followed, for the most part, although the composition of the group varied somewhat due to variability in the quality and quantity of applications received from each state. The revised training materials and almost all nine videotapes were field-tested with this national group of educators. Upon their return home, the National Institute participants have begun to implement plans for infusing the BORN FREE goals and materials into their respective states and/or institutions. Each state implementation plan was a collaborative effort on the part of all participants from that respective state.

The institute was the last major activity prior to making final product revisions, completing project reports, and terminating the first two years of the project as of August 31, 1978. Attached is a list of the products and publications completed by staff in the two-year period.

I. PRINT TRAINING MATERIALS

These three training packets, combined with videotapes, form the core of the BORN FREE training materials. Each packet consists of 1) an introductory section with self-contained guidelines for users, 2) a set of experiential and cognitive learning strategies designed to help educators and parents change their attitudes and behaviors to expand career options for both women and men, 3) reprints of numerous articles and handouts used in the strategies, 4) a specially compiled Fact Pack with statistics on the status of women and men in the labor force, 5) an extensive set of references.

Hansen, L. S.; Pelcak, D.; Perreault, G.; & Dege, D. *BORN FREE Training Packet to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Development: Elementary Level*, August, 1978.

Hansen, L. S.; Hatfield, T.; Johnson, D.; Teeson, T.; Harper, J.; & Perreault, G. *BORN FREE Training Packet to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Development: Secondary Level*, August, 1978.

Hansen, L. S.; Perreault, G.; Lofgren, G.; Follett, C.; Watt, M. A.; & Boe, A. *BORN FREE Training Packet to Reduce Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Development: Postsecondary/Higher Education Level*, August, 1978.

II. VIDEOTAPE TRAINING MATERIALS

BORN FREE has produced nine half-hour color videotapes and viewers' guides which are an integral part of the training materials. The tapes were built around developmental themes of career socialization drawn from the literature reviews. They were also based on problems identified in systems analyses completed by pilot institutions. The tapes were developed by L. Sunny Hansen, Director, and Phyllis Kragseth, Media Specialist, with technical production by University Media Resources, Arnold Walker, Executive Producer. Dolores Dege coordinated development of the viewers' guides. The tapes consist of interviews and vignettes largely of students, parents, and staff in the BORN FREE pilot institutions. "BORN FREE: A World of Options" received the Best Videotape Award in the American Personnel and Guidance Association Film Festival in Washington, D. C., March, 1978. It is hoped that the tapes eventually will be shown on broadcast television. However, they will be used primarily in programs and workshops for educators and parents to promote sex equity in career options.

Videotape No. 1 - BORN FREE: A World of Options
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 2 - Men: Choices and Changes
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Tim Hatfield, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 3 - Women: Choices and Changes
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Gerri Perreault, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 4 - The Joy of Choosing
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Sue Warsett, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

Videotape No. 5 - Parenting - Three Generations
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Phyllis Kragseth, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

Videotape No. 6 - Parents as Influencers
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Phyllis Kragseth, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 7 - Schools as Influencers
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Doug Pelcak, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

Videotape No. 8 - Colleges as Influencers
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Barbara Lofgren, Beverly Mills-Novoa, and L. Sunny Hansen

Videotape No. 9 - Why Change?
Viewers' Guide: Dolores Dege, Gerri Perreault, L. Sunny Hansen, and Beverly Mills-Novoa

The video Viewers' guides, designed for workshop leaders, consist of a general introductory section on the purpose of the project, the tapes and guides, and a discussion of how the materials can be integrated into training workshops. Brief information is provided on career development, sex-role socialization, and change process, as well as on the development, rationale, and format of the tapes. A section on guidelines for showing the tapes reviews aspects of group process and provides discussion hints for conducting workshops on this topic. The last part of each guide presents an overview of the purpose of each tape, a summary of initial field-test results, and a set of questions relating to each tape segment. (Approximately 20 pages each.)

III. SUPPLEMENTARY TRAINING MATERIALS

The reviews of literature are designed to provide documentation of the need for attention to reducing sex bias in career development of all persons. They attempt to answer the questions, "What do we know about 'career socialization' at different levels of development?" and "What can we do through home, school, and college to reduce the barriers and expand the facilitators of career options for women and men?"

A. Reviews of Literature

Pelcak, D., et al. Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Elementary Level. Technical Report No. 1, August, 1977. (64 pages)

Johnson, D.; Harper, J.; Hatfield, T.; Teeson, T.; & Hansen, L. S. Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Secondary Level. Technical Report No. 2, August, 1977. (100 pages)

Follett, C.; Watt, M.; Hansen, L. S.; et al. Selected Review of the Literature on Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping at the Postsecondary/Higher Education Level. Technical Report No. 3, August, 1977. (113 pages)

B. Evaluation Reports

BORN FREE completed extensive evaluation of both its products and process. The product evaluation reports provide data on the validation of the training packets and the videotapes. They also report on the effectiveness of the BORN FREE training designs carried out in one state workshop and one national institute. Some data are also provided on workshops developed in pilot institutions.

The process reports provide exploratory evaluation of the process by which BORN FREE was carried out in the 14 pilot schools and colleges over a two-year period. The change process is analyzed according to the Rand Model of Educational Change, examining what happened as field-site staff, in consultation with University staff, made plans for initiation, implementation, and continuation of BORN FREE efforts in their institutions. The reports can be extremely useful to those attempting to bring about educational change in the area of sex equity in career options.

Warsett, S. Evaluation Report on Field Testing of Color Video Cassette and Training Packets. Technical Report No. 4, August, 1977. (65 pages)

Warsett, S. Evaluation Report on BORN FREE Videotapes, Training Packets and Selected Workshops. Technical Report No. 9, August, 1978. (approximately 100 pages)

Keierleber, D. Evaluation of the 1977 BORN FREE Summer Institute: A Workshop Model to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping. Technical Report No. 5, August, 1977. (79 pages)

Penn, P. Evaluation of the 1978 BORN FREE National Institute: A Workshop Model to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping. Technical Report No. 10, August, 1978. (approximately 75 pages)

Keierleber, D., & Hansen, L. S. Evaluation of Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions, 1976-77. Technical Report No. 6, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., May, 1978. (117 pages)

Krusemark, F. Evaluation of the Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions, 1977-78. Technical Report No. 8, August, 1978. (approximately 100 pages)

Keierleber, D. Case Summaries of the Educational Change Process in Project BORN FREE Institutions, 1976-77. Technical Report No. 7, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., May, 1978. (109 pages)

IV. PROJECT PROGRESS REPORTS

Project Progress Reports describe the internal development of Project BORN FREE over the two-year period. They describe each component of the project, provide brief statements of developments in project institutions, present evaluation highlights, include sample instruments and newsletters, discuss the process by which project goals were carried out, and give a candid appraisal of problems and progress in carrying out a project of this scope.

Hansen, L. S., & Jones, L. Project BORN FREE First Quarterly Report, Women's Educational Equity Act, United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, College of Education, U of M, Mpls, December, 1976. (25 pages)

Hansen, L. S. Project BORN FREE Second Quarterly Report, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., March, 1977. (31 pages)

Hansen, L. S. Project BORN FREE Third Quarterly Report, WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., June, 1977. (26 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE Annual Report, September 9, 1976-August 31, 1977. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., October, 1977. (37 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE *First Quarterly Report*, September 1, 1977-December 31, 1977. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., 1978. (39 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE *Second Quarterly Report*, January 1, 1978-March 31, 1978. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls.,1978. (49 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE *Third Quarterly Report*, April 1-June 30, 1978. WEEA, USOE, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., 1978. (48 pages)

Hansen, L. S., & Mills-Novoa, B. Project BORN FREE *Final Report*, September 1976-1978. WEEA, USOE, DHEW, College of Education, U of M, Mpls., September, 1978. (approximately 65 pages)

V. INFORMATION SHARING

A. Publications

Hansen, L. S., & Keierleber, D. BORN FREE: A Collaborative Consultation Model for Career Development and Sex-Role Stereotyping. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, March, 1978, 395-399.

Hansen, L. S. An Applied Developmental Model to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Educational Institutions. In *Resocialization of Sex-Roles* (E. Waters and J. Goodman, Eds.). Washington, D. C.: National Vocational Guidance Association. (In press)

B. Papers Presented at National Conferences*

Johnson, D. "BORN FREE: Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Educational Institutions - Literature Review and Systems Analysis." Paper presented at American Psychological Association National Convention, San Francisco, CA, August 29, 1977.

Keierleber, D. "BORN FREE: Reducing Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Educational Institutions - Process and Product Evaluation." APA, San Francisco, CA, August 29, 1977.

Hansen, L. S. "BORN FREE: Reducing Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping - Staff Development and Change Process." APA, San Francisco, CA, August 29, 1977.

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*Numerous other workshops were held and speeches presented for local, state, and national conferences, organizations, and institutions.

Hansen, L. S. "An Applied Developmental Intervention to Reduce Career-Related Sex-Role Stereotyping in Elementary, Secondary, and Higher Education Settings." Paper presented as part of a symposium on "Educational Intervention to Promote Female Development--A Life Span View." APA, San Francisco, CA, August 27, 1977.

Hansen, L. S. "BORN FREE: Change Process Evaluation of a Psycho-educational Intervention to Reduce Career Sex-Role Stereotyping for Women and Men." Paper presented as part of a Symposium on "Cross-Cultural Sex Differences" at the American Educational Research Association Annual Convention, Toronto, Canada, March 30, 1978.

C. Project Information

The following brochures, summaries, and newsletters have been created to provide descriptive information about the project and the materials for those interested in issues of sex equity for both women and men.

Mills-Novoa, B., & Hansen, L. S. Project Abstract, March, 1978.

Mills-Novoa, B., & Staff. BORN FREE News. Bi-monthly newsletter to promote communication among BORN FREE institutions. The initial 14 schools and institutions of higher education participating in the project are Lincoln Elementary, Sunrise Junior High, and Mariner High School in White Bear Lake, MN; Webster Elementary, Mounds Park Junior High, and Washington High School in St. Paul, MN; Harley Hopkins Elementary, North Junior High, and Eisenhower High School in Hopkins, MN; Lakewood Community College in White Bear Lake, MN; Normandale Community College in Bloomington, MN; Special Intermediate School District #916 in White Bear Lake, MN; College of Liberal Arts Career Planning Office (University of Minnesota) in Minneapolis, MN; and Augsburg College, Minneapolis, MN. The newsletter has been expanded to include the 107 participants in the 1978 National Institute as well as others around the nation concerned about sex bias in career options.

Hansen, L. S. BORN FREE Products and Publications. A listing and brief description of all the modules and reports produced by Project BORN FREE in the first two years of its existence.

Boe, D. Project Logo. The yellow and orange project logo, an original design, has been distributed as a public relations tool to arouse interest in BORN FREE and create awareness of the problems the project addresses.

Dege, D. Videotape Abstracts. A one-page description of each of the nine BORN FREE videotapes.

Kragseth, P. Videotape Overview. A brief description of the developmental themes and content of each of the nine BORN FREE videotapes.

VI. DISSEMINATION

Materials will be reviewed for dissemination by the Education Development Center, 55 Chapel Street, Newton, Massachusetts 02160, (617) 969-7100 or 1-800-225-3088. EDC is the official WEEA project dissemination contractor.

Because of USOE dissemination restrictions, the length of our packets and reports, and budget limitations, we are unable to engage in general dissemination. However, selected conference papers and reports are available (while supply lasts) for cost of reproduction and mailing.

For copies of abstract, information papers, or sample of training materials, or to be put on newsletter mailing list for BORN FREE Network, contact:

L. Sunny Hansen, Professor and Director
Project BORN FREE
139 Burton Hall, 178 Pillsbury Drive SE
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN 55455
(612) 373-0202 or 373-5558

For dissemination information, contact:

Dissemination Center for Women's
Educational Equity Act Program
Education Development Center
55 Chapel Street
Newton, MA 02160
(617) 969-7100 or 1-800-225-3088

B. SELECTED RESOURCES: POSTSECONDARY/HIGHER EDUCATION

This section covers publications and organizations that, though generally not mentioned elsewhere in this packet, are extremely useful for people interested in providing sex equity in postsecondary/higher education.

Organizations

AERA/SIG Research on Women in Education
Anne C. Peterson, Chair
Michael Reese Medical Center
Chicago, Illinois 60616

A special interest group (SIG) of the American Educational Research Association, this brings together professional women with common interests in research on women. They have a quarterly newsletter and hold programs and business meetings at the annual convention of AERA.

Catalyst
Charlene Newburg
14 East 60th Street
New York, New York 10022 (212) 759-9700

Catalyst is an organization developed to create new job opportunities primarily for college-educated women. It has also sponsored research programs on the career development of college women and published a number of books, pamphlets, and useful guides for women and those who work with them.

Center for Research on Women in Higher Education and the Professions
Wellesley College
Cheever House
828 Washington Street
Wellesley, Massachusetts 02181
(617) 235-6360, 235-0320

This center is dedicated to expanding and supporting research on women in higher education settings and in professional fields. It also provides review panels for federal research and development projects on women. It is co-sponsored by the Federation of Organizations for Professional Women and Wellesley College.

The Dissemination Center
Women's Educational Equity Act Program
Education Development Center, Inc. (EDC)
55 Chapel Street
Newton, Massachusetts 02160
Toll Free No. (800) 225-3088
In Massachusetts: (617) 969-7100

Official disseminator for the products and programs funded under the Women's Educational Equity Act Program (WEEAP) of the U.S. Office of Education, HEW. EDC also has developed a significant number of projects and publications on career education and career development of women.

Higher Education Resources Services (HERS)
Dr. Martha Tolpin
Project HERS
Wellesley College
Cheever House
Wellesley, Massachusetts 02181
(617) 235-7173
(617) 235-0320, Ext. 789

A referral and placement service for women in higher education, HERS also conducts career counseling workshops for women in higher education teaching or administration. Recently added an Administrative Skills Program for women faculty and entry and mid-level administrators.

Integrating Cultural Diversity into Non-sex-biased Curriculum
Gloria Kumagai, WEEAP Project Director
Program on Integrating Cultural Diversity into Non-sex-biased Curriculum
Highland Park Elementary School
1700 Saunders Avenue
St. Paul, Minnesota 55116

Project funded by the Women's Educational Equity Act Program to find materials and develop curriculum focused on minority women. Has available Minority Women: An Annotated Bibliography.

Male Awareness Network (MAN)
The Men's Center
P.O. Box 14299
University Station
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414

This center promotes awareness of male socialization, and sponsors forums and conferences regarding changes and choices in men's lives.

National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs
Joy R. Simonson, Executive Director
National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs
Suite 821
1832 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 382-3862

Established by the Women's Educational Act (1974) to advise the Assistant Secretary for Education and other Federal officials regarding the improvement of educational equity for women and girls.

Office of Women in Higher Education
Emily Taylor, Director
Office of Women in Higher Education
American Council on Education
One Dupont Circle
Washington, D.C. 20036

Concerned with strengthening leadership in postsecondary education by identifying and assisting women who have shown promise for major positions in academic administration. Publishes *Comment* three times a year; includes reports of research and projects. Editor is Jo Hartley.

Project BORN FREE
L. Sunny Hansen, Director
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455
(612) 373-5558; 373-0202

Project on the Status and Education of Women
Dr. Bernice Sandler
1818 R Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009

This center serves as a clearinghouse for information about legislative, economic, and other developments in the higher education of women. It also serves as a communication network for those in higher education concerned about women's issues.

Projects/Women, the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education
Virginia B. Smith, Director
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202

The Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education is a federally funded agency which has provided funding for several major programs dealing with women in higher education.

Resources on Eliminating Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education
The Center for Vocational Education
The Ohio State University
1960 Kenny Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210

Very useful annotated listing of items useful to vocational education and counselors. Lists state and local projects, reports and products, secondary education and postsecondary programs, referrals and references, and non-print media.

Vetter, Louise, Ph.D.
The Ohio Center for Vocational Education
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43210
(614) 486-3655

Dr. Vetter has developed a number of articles, monographs, resources, and research programs related to career development of women at all ages.

Women's Educational Equity Communications Network (WEECN)
Dr. Matilda Butler, Director
Far West Educational Laboratory
1855 Folsom Street
San Francisco, California 94103

National Clearinghouse funded under Women's Educational Equity Act to communicate information about programs for sex equity.

Women's Equity Action League (WEAL)
Women's Equity Action League
733 15th Street, N.W.
Suite 200
Washington, D.C. 20005

Has materials and publications relevant to women in higher education. Send for list.

Women's Programs
Women's Educational Equity Act
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202

The Women's Program Staff has responsibility for administering all the projects funded under the Women's Educational Equity Act. A major funding source for a variety of programs related to women's status, education, and concerns, this U.S. Office of Education program coordinates communication among WEEAP Projects, provides annual reports on projects funded, and serves as a focal point for program development to reduce sex bias in education.

Women's Research Program
Dr. Jean Lipman-Blumen, Director
Women's Research Program
National Institute of Education
1200 19th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20208
(202) 254-5736

Agency of the National Institute of Education which is doing, and interested in promoting, research on women.

Publications

Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. Opportunities for Women in Higher Education. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

Covers the status of women in higher education, including useful statistical information.

Furniss, W. Todd, and Graham, Patricia Albjerg (Eds.). Women in Higher Education. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974. (Address: A.C.E., One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036).

Anthology of articles by Astin, Harris, Kreps, Mattfeld, Sandler, etc., on women as students, faculty, and administrators. Includes coverage of nepotism rules, part-time status, graduate education, and affirmative action.

Hansen, L. S. An Examination of the Definitions and Concepts of Career Education. Washington, D.C.: National Advisory Council for Career Education, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

A paper commissioned by the National Advisory Council for Career Education. Analyzes the historical development and present status of career education with its earlier antecedents in career development, career guidance, and vocational education. Discusses federal and non-federal conceptualizations and offers an expanded concept of career education which attends to issues of sex-role stereotyping.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Men's Studies Bibliography. Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT, 1977.

This is an extensive bibliography dealing with many aspects of men's socialization--attitudes toward women, fatherhood, employment, sexuality, power, men's liberation--to name a few.

Perreault, G. Resources on Minority Women. (Address: 3224 Harriet Avenue South, Minneapolis, MN 55408 (612) 823-7716).

Selected resources on minority women and on race bias. Sections are divided into General, Black women, Native American women, Spanish speaking/Chicanas, and Asian American women. Covers material of interest to educators at all educational levels, but is especially relevant for those at colleges and universities.

Rossi, Alice, and Calderwood, Ann (Eds.). Academic Women on the Move. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973. (Address: RSF, 230 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017).

Anthology of articles by Rossi, Freeman, Roby, Astin, Carroll, Graham, Sandler, Howe, etc., on women as students, faculty, and administrators. Topics include Black women, faculty wives, institutional and discipline variations in the status of women, and career profiles of women doctorates.

Skovholt, T.; Gormley, J.; Schauble, P.; and Davis, R. Counseling Men. The Counseling Psychologist, 1978, 7(4).

A special issue containing articles both on issues in counseling men and new interventions in counseling men. The competent male, male competition, males in psychotherapy, treatment strategies for dating anxieties, males in transition, male self-help groups, and men and family life are topics covered.

Westervelt, E. M. Barriers to Women's Participation in Postsecondary Education: A Review of Research and Commentary as of 1973-74. National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, n.d. (#NCES 75-407).

Excellent, concise summary of barriers women faculty, administrators, and students face in colleges and universities.

Women Studies Abstracts. Women Studies Abstracts. Rush Publishing Co. P.O. Box 1, Rush, N.Y. 14543.

Published quarterly. Includes sections on education and socialization, sex roles, and employment.

C. FACT PACK

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Distribution by Age and Sex (1900-1975) . . . . FP 3

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Change in Poverty Status of U.S. Families 1960-1974 . . . FP 5

F. "Disabled People in the U.S.: Facts and Figures" . . . . FP 5
(Article from *Interracial Books for Children Bulletin*, 1978)

G. Labor Force

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INTRODUCTION

What follows is a sampling of the kinds of information available which is very useful as background material for doing BORN FREE training programs. Persons planning to be involved in such programs would find the material published by the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor extremely valuable. A list of their publications can be obtained by writing them. Also very useful is the newsletter (On Campus with Women) and other materials available free from the Project on the Status and Education of Women.

Project BORN FREE also recommends that, where possible, workshop leaders try to obtain data that is broken down by race, class, and sex so that one can see more clearly the positions of these respective groups. For example, a chart that gives the income of only women and men would obscure the fact that women of minority racial groups are on the bottom of such charts.

Attention should also be paid to the fact that different sources use different definitions and data analysis in arriving at conclusions. For example, a chart listing median income of women and men will be different from one listing mean or average income, as will one that includes full-time workers and part-time workers vs. a chart that covers only full-time workers.

A. Life Expectancy

While life expectancy for both women and men in the U. S. has increased substantially in this century, the increase has been greater for women. The average female born in the U. S. in 1973 will live 7.7 years longer than the average male.

-- Taken from Minnesota Women: A Profile, 1977, p. 1.

Assuming that the 1973 death rates do not change in the future, 80% of female children will live to the age of 65 as compared with only 65% for male children. (But at age 65, life expectancy is 13 years for men and 17 years for women.)

-- Taken from "Facts About Older Americans 1975," U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Female-male ratios: In 1973 for people 65 and older in the U. S., the ratio of women to men was 143-100. In the year 2000, it is expected to be 154-100.

-- Taken from "Facts About Older Americans 1974," U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Minority infant mortality is twice that of white.
Minorities live five years less than whites.

-- Taken from "What Are the Results of Racism?" 1977

B. Marital Status of Older Americans

(These are 1974 figures.)

Older men: 79% are married
Older women: 52% are widows
(more than five times as many widows as widowers)

Distribution:

	Men	Women
Married	78.9%	38.7%
Widowed	14.4	52.4
Divorced	2.2	2.6
Never married	4.6	6.3

-- Taken from "Facts About Older Americans" (n.d.)

C. Legal Rights Based on Age

Age discrimination in the United States is illegal in employment for persons 40-65. (For further details, contact U. S. Department of Labor, Wages and Hour Division, Washington, D. C. 20210.)

On the state level, there are 36 states with age discrimination laws.

In Minnesota, for Minnesota residents 62 or older, legislation passed in 1975 enables them to take classes at any public post-secondary educational institution in the State when space is available after all tuition-paying students have been accommodated. To take classes for credit, an administration fee of $2.00 per credit has to be paid.

-- Source Unknown

D. U. S. Population

Minorities Undercounted:

The New York Times reported on April 25, 1973, that the 1970 census missed 1.9% of whites and 7.7% of Blacks; the undercount for Black children was 8.6%. The U. S. Commission on Civil Rights in April of 1974 stated that persons of Spanish speaking background were undercounted by appreciably more than 7.7%.

The following were the figures reported by the Bureau of the Census for U.S. Population, 1970:

177,749,000	Whites
22,580,000	Blacks
5,023,000	Mexicans
2,483,000	Other Spanish origin
1,450,000	Puerto Ricans (mainland)
793,000	Native Americans
591,000	Japanese
435,000	Chinese
343,000	Filipino

-- Taken from "Did the U. S. Census Undercount Minorities?" 1975

Distribution by Age and Sex (1900-1975):

Table 1

Percent Distribution of the Population by Age and Sex: 1900 to 1975

(Resident population as of July 1 for 1975 and as of April 1 for other years)

Sex and year	All ages	Under 15 years	15 to 24 years	25 to 44 years	45 to 64 years	65 years and over
WOMEN						
1975.........	100.0%	24.0%	18.2%	24.9%	20.8%	12.1%
1970.........	100.0	27.2	17.2	23.5	20.9	11.2
1960.........	100.0	30.1	13.3	26.3	20.3	10.0
1950.........	100.0	26.2	14.8	30.4	20.2	8.5
1940.........	100.0	24.8	18.4	30.5	19.4	7.0
1930.........	100.0*	29.4	18.7	29.5	16.9	5.4
1920.........	100.0*	32.1	18.3	29.4	15.3	4.7
1910.........	100.0*	32.7	20.2	28.6	14.0	4.4
1900.........	100.0*	34.8	20.2	27.4	13.3	4.1
MEN						
1975.........	100.0	26.4	19.4	25.3	20.1	8.8
1970.........	100.0	29.8	17.7	23.7	20.2	8.5
1960.........	100.0	32.1	13.5	26.0	20.0	8.5
1950.........	100.0	27.5	14.6	29.7	20.4	7.7
1940.........	100.0	25.3	18.0	29.8	20.2	6.7
1930.........	100.0*	29.4	17.9	29.4	18.0	5.3
1920.........	100.0*	31.5	17.1	29.7	16.9	4.6
1910.........	100.0*	31.5	19.2	29.7	15.1	4.2
1900.........	100.0*	33.9	19.0	28.7	14.1	4.0

*Includes persons with age not reported, not shown separately.

-- Taken from A Statistical Portrait of Women in the U.S., 1976

E. Poverty

Persons in Poverty:

Females who were low income outnumbered males by more than four million in 1975. The 15 million females living in poverty accounted for three out of five persons (58 percent) who were low income in the U. S.

Although the poverty rate of women exceeded that of men in virtually every age group, the greatest differential occurred among those persons 65 years and over. There were 2.3 million low income women and about 1 million low income men in this age group (see tables which follow):

Table 2: Persons Living in Poverty, by Sex and Age, 1976

	Number (in thousands)		Poverty rate	
Age	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total, 16 years and over	10,034	5,736	12.2%	7.7%
16 to 21 years	1,785	1,341	14.4	11.1
22 to 44 years	3,640	2,098	10.7	6.4
45 to 54 years	1,071	617	8.9	5.5
55 to 59 years	590	342	10.4	6.7
60 to 64 years	622	350	12.6	8.0
65 years and over	2,326	988	17.9	10.8

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 107. September 1977. (Advance Report)

-- Taken from Women with Low Incomes, November 1977, pp. 1-2.

Families in Poverty:

The number of low income families in the United States was 5.3 million in 1976. Of the 56.7 million families in the United States in 1976, women headed 7.7 million. Although women were only 14 percent of all family heads, they made up 48 percent of all low income family heads. Further, Black women, who accounted for 4 percent of all family heads, were 21 percent of all those with low incomes. Spanish-origin women headed 1 percent of all families but were 5 percent of all low-income family heads.

About one-third of all families headed by women were low income--more than five times the 5.6 percent rate for male-head families. About 1 out of 4 (25 percent) families were headed by a white woman but 2 out of 4 (50%) of those headed by Black women were low income.

-- Taken from Women with Low Incomes, November 1977, p. 6.

Change in Poverty Status of U. S. Families 1960-1974:

Between 1960 and 1974 in the United States, there was a substantial decrease in the number of male-headed and husband-wife families in poverty. At the same time, there have been increases in the number of female-headed families in poverty, particularly among those with dependent children:

Male-headed and husband-wife:	-56%
Male-headed and husband-wife with dependent children:	-55%
Female-headed:	+20%
Female-headed with dependent children:	+46%

-- Taken from Newsletter (#13), 1978, p. 4.

F. Disabled People in the U. S.: Facts and Figures

See article on the next seven pages, pp. FP 6-12.

-- Taken from Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 1978.

DISABLED PEOPLE IN THE U.S.: FACTS AND FIGURES[1]

How many disabled people are there in the U.S.?

Not until the 1970 Census was there any attempt to identify the numbers of disabled persons in the U.S. That survey was seriously limited in that the questions asked dealt solely with whether or not a person had a health or physical condition which affected his or her "ability to work." The 1970 Census showed a total adult population of 121 million in the typically accepted employable age-range of sixteen to sixty-four years. Of this total, there were just under 11.3 million persons with disabilities which had existed for six months or longer. The census, therefore, concluded that one in every 11 people in the U.S.--over 9 per cent of the population--has a disability.

These figures, however, do not reveal the total number of disabled persons. Many disabled persons *do* work; hence, their condition is not an impediment to employment. These people were not counted. The figure was low for another reason. Because of the stigma society attaches to disability, many disabled people did not *identify* themselves as disabled. Finally, the 1970 Census did not include disabled people under sixteen and over sixty-four or those in institutions.

The American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities estimates that 36 million people in the U.S.--one in six--have physical and/or developmental disabilities. A figure close to this one is predicted for the 1980 Census, which will be based on a considerably expanded definition of disabilities.

What statistics are available on specific types of disabilities?

11.7 million (or more) physically disabled people (including 1/2 million who use wheelchairs; 3 million who use crutches, canes, braces or walkers; plus mobility-impaired elderly, amputees and those people with illnesses such as chronic arthritis, severe cardiovascular disorders and cerebral palsy);

12.5 million temporarily injured (broken limbs, injuries to back or spine, severe burns);

2.4 million deaf;

11 million hearing impaired;

1.3 million blind;

8.2 million visually impaired;

6.8 million developmentally disabled (retarded, severely emotionally disturbed, brain damaged, severe learning disabilities);

1.7 million homebound (due to chronic health disorders or degenerative diseases like multiple sclerosis); and

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1. From: Interracial Books for Children Bulletin, 8 (6&7), 1978, 20-21.

2.1 million institutionalized (mentally retarded, developmentally disabled, terminally ill). This figure includes an unknown number of persons who are disabled and forced into institutions for economic reasons alone. Many people with severe cerebral palsy, for example, could be leading independent lives in the community if they had money--income from the government or from a job.

Some persons fall into more than one of the above categories.

How many disabilities are due to injuries received on the job?

Disabling work injuries in the U.S. totalled approximately 2.5 million in 1973, about 90,000 of these resulting in permanent disability. This can be largely attributed to unsafe working conditions.

COMPARATIVE INCOME OF EMPLOYED DISABLED PEOPLE

For every dollar earned by a non-disabled white male in 1969, disabled people made the following:

White male	$ .60
White woman	(not available)
Black male	.25
Black woman	.12 (less than)

Figures are only for the age range 45-54, one of the higher income-producing age brackets. Source: "Employment Problems of Disabled Persons," *Monthly Labor Review*, March, 1977.

How many were disabled by the Vietnam war?

Some 490,000 veterans were disabled by the Vietnam war.

What are the income differences between the disabled and non-disabled?

The annual earnings of disabled workers are approximately 70 per cent those of non-disabled workers, according to the U.S. Department of Labor. A household with a disabled adult must make do with a third less income than other households (this does not take into account the extra expenses that may be incurred by a disability). Of disabled people, 36 per cent live in poverty[2] as opposed to 20 per cent of the general population. The proportion of disabled people at the lowest poverty level--15 per cent--was almost twice that of the general population--8 per cent--in 1973.

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[2] The federal government's definition of poverty is considered by many to be absurdly and unrealistically low.

How many disabled people are unemployed?

In a society where people's marketability depends largely on physical appearance, disabled persons--particularly women--are often excluded from the job market. The U.S. Department of Labor estimates that 58 per cent of disabled people are unemployed. A New York City advocacy organization estimates that 64 per cent of those disabled New Yorkers who have a skill and *can* work are unemployed. In California, an estimated 3.5 million disabled people between the ages of sixteen and sixty-four are job ready but cannot find work. Only about one in ten of the people trained in so-called "special workshops for the handicapped" finds work after training. A recent study shows that only 21 per cent of disabled young adults are employed or at college. The remaining 79 per cent of disabled young adults are underemployed, unemployed or institutionalized.

What barriers do disabled persons face?

If a person becomes disabled, expenses go up while income goes down (maximum welfare benefits are frequently as low as $168 a month). Equipment when needed--wheelchairs, braille typewriters, hearing aids, etc.--is exorbitantly priced. Some disabled people require "health care providers" or "homemakers," attendants who must be paid. And in order to have mobility, disabled people may need specially equipped cars or vans--another exorbitant expense--since "public" transportation is often inaccessible. Disabled people who are employed can spend double or triple the carfare of non-disabled people to get to work. Lack of interpreters and communication devices effectively exclude blind and deaf people from attending meetings, movies or other events and make such crucial requisites as going to a hospital extremely difficult.

Disabled people are stared at and harassed. They are frequently mugged or raped. They are also ignored. They are demeaningly referred to as "cripple," "handicapped," "deformed," "abnormal," etc. They are seen as retarded, overly sensitive, easily hurt, weak, shy, non-sexual or sexually perverse. As pointed out in the article "Media Portrayals of Disabled People" societal attitudes do not reflect the reality of disabled people's capabilities. "Our bodies make us disabled, but society makes us handicapped," said one individual at a New York State hearing that preceded the 1977 White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals.

In the past two years, thousands of complaints about job discrimination have been filed by disabled persons. Yet out of every ten complaints filed with the Federal Office of Contract Compliance, only two were acted upon.

What barriers confront school-age children?

Although children with disabilities represent over ten per cent of the school age population in the U.S., many have been excluded from public schools because of societal attitudes or accessibility problems, not because they were unable to learn. These children have been forced into isolation in their homes or in institutions. Where they have been admitted to public schools, many children have been relegated to segregated programs "out of sight" of the regular student body. Nationwide, only 50 per cent of 7 million disabled children are receiving an education which is at all adequate to meeting their needs, according to the New York State Council on Handicapped Individuals. The same council also states that only about 25 per cent of disabled pre-school children are enrolled in appropriate programs.

What are some of the preventable causes of disabilities?

While a disability can happen to anyone, the most frequent victims of disability are working class people, most particularly Third World people and females--that is, people who already face massive discrimination. Third World people are especially likely to suffer disabling accidents because they are forced to work at unsafe jobs with insufficient or no union protection and do not have enough money for adequate health care, diet, car maintenance and other needs. Children born into these population categories are more likely to have disabilities due to maternal malnourishment, the effects of job-related toxins on workers and maternal ingestion of unsafe drugs during pregnancy. (Childhood malnourishment, which is a result of poverty, can also cause disabilities.)

ABOUT "MAINSTREAMING"

Note: The new federal legislation (PL 94142) does *not* mandate the mainstreaming of disabled students into regular classes. This law does state that no student can be denied a free public education regardless of the severity of the disability, and that this education must be provided in the "least restrictive environment." The least restrictive environment must be determined for each disabled child and does *not* necessarily mean placement in the regular classroom.

How is discrimination against disabled people related to discrimination against women, minorities and older people?

Disabled people are victims of economic and racial oppression, and their low status in the U.S., as compared with the status of non-disabled white males, is the result of a society that places a higher priority on material than on human values.

Disabled people--like racial minorities, women and older people--receive unequal treatment in the job market, in inadequate facilities and services for health care, and in the stereotyped and biased presentation they face in books and other media. Of all people, the most oppressed economically are disabled Third World women (see chart, page 20).

What, if any, protection exists for disabled persons?

Until four years ago, no federal law specifically prohibited discrimination against disabled persons. Under pressure from 800 disability rights groups, and after a much publicized sit-in by disabled people at the Lincoln Memorial, Congress passed the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Section 504 prohibits any federally funded institution from excluding disabled persons from programs or facilities on the basis of their disability. However, the regulations to implement the new law were not signed until April 28, 1977--and then only after nationwide protest demonstrations.

What do disability rights groups want?

In recent years, an aggressive civil rights movement has been initiated by disabled persons. In their efforts to achieve equality, disabled people have been sitting-in, picketing, filing law suits and lobbying for the equal protection promised them but never received under the 14th Amendment.

SOURCES

One in Eleven, Handicapped Adults in America, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C.

"The Handicapped, A Minority Demanding Its Rights," *New York Times*, Feb. 13, 1977. Includes statistics provided by the National Arts and the Handicapped Information Service and the National Center for Health Statistics.

"Handicapped No Longer Act Like It," *New York Times*, Oct. 2, 1977.

D.I.A. Speaks, published by Disabled in Action, May, 1977.

The Coalition, Vol. 1, No. 2, Fall, 1977, published by the American Coalition of Citizens with Disabilities, Washington, D.C.

"Employment Problems of Disabled Persons," *Monthly Labor Review*, March, 1977.

G. Labor Force

Changes in Participation Rate of Women (1950-1976):

Table 3: Women in the labor force, annual averages for selected years, 1950-1976

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Labor force		
	Total, both sexes	Women	
		Number	Percent of total
1950	62,208	18,389	29.6%
1955	65,023	20,584	31.6
1960	69,628	23,240	33.4
1965	74,455	26,200	35.2
1970	82,715	31,520	38.1
1975	92,613	36,998	39.9
1976	94,773	38,414	40.5

-- Taken from U. S. Working Women: A Databook, p. 5.

Age Changes of Women in Labor Force:

In 1975, 46 percent of all women 16 years of age and over were in the labor force, considerably higher than the 34 percent rate which prevailed 25 years earlier. The greatest gains in labor force rates since 1950 have been registered among women 20 to 54 years of age (see table which follows):

Table 4: Women Workers in 1950 and 1975

(Numbers in thousands)

Age	1975		1950	
	Number	Percent of population	Number	Percent of population
16 years and over	36,998	46.3%	18,389	33.9%
16 and 17 years	1,652	40.2	611	30.1
18 to 64 years	34,313	54.3	17,195	37.2
18 and 19 years	2,387	58.1	1,101	51.3
20 to 24 years	6,069	64.1	2,675	46.0
25 to 34 years	8,456	54.6	4,092	34.0
35 to 44 years	6,492	55.8	4,161	39.1
45 to 54 years	6,666	54.6	3,327	37.9
55 to 64 years	4,244	41.0	1,839	27.0
65 years and over	1,033	8.3	584	9.7

-- Taken from Women Workers Today, 1976, p. 2.

Mothers in Labor Force:

The number of mothers in the labor force has increased more then threefold since 1950. There were 14.1 million mothers in the labor force in March 1975, an increase of 4.5 million in the last decade. The changes are graphically displayed in the following table which shows, for example, for mothers with children under 6 years old a change from 13.6% in 1950 to 38.9% in 1975.

Table 5: Labor Force Participation Rates of Mothers, Selected Years, 1950-1975

Year	Mothers with children		
	Under 18 years	6 to 17 years	Under 6 years*
1950	21.6%	32.8%	13.6%
1955	27.0	38.4	18.2
1965	35.0	45.7	25.3
1975	47.4	54.8	38.9

*May also have older children.

Note: For 1950 and 1955, data are for April; for 1965 and 1975, data are for March.

-- Taken from Women Workers Today, 1976, pp. 3-4.

Minority mothers, like their white counterparts, have sharply increased their labor force participation in recent years. The greatest increase for both minority and white mothers has been among women with children under six years of age.

The participation rates for minority mothers have always been considerably higher than those for white mothers. Their increase in the last five years has not been so marked as their white counterparts, but their participation rate is still higher (58.1 percent vs. 47.5 percent) as the following chart indicates.

Table 6: Percentage of Mothers in the Labor Force, by Race, Age of Children, and Marital Status of Mother, March 1976

Age of children	All never married	Married (husband present)	Other marital status*
	Minority		
Total	58.1%	58.3%	57.7%
6 to 17 years	62.4	63.8	60.3
Under 6 years	53.3	53.2	53.8
	White		
Total	47.5	44.8	66.0
6 to 17 years	55.4	52.7	70.9
Under 6 years	37.7	35.5	57.2

*Widowed, divorced, or separated.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, unpublished data.

--Taken from Minority Women Workers: A Statistical Overview, 1977 (revised), p. 9.

Labor-Force Status of Family Members:
(For husband-wife families)

In March 1975, families where the husband and some other member were in the labor force constituted about half of the 46 million husband-wife families in the United States. Only about 38 percent of all husband-wife families had just one worker, as the following chart indicates.

Wife only in labor force:	3%
Husband only in labor force:	34%
Husband and wife in labor force:	41%
Husband and other in labor force:	8%
More than one family member in labor force, excluding husband:	1%
None in labor force:	12%
Other family member in labor force:	1%

-- Taken from Hayghe, "Families and the Rise of Working Wives," 1976, p. 16.

Yearly Income by Age and Sex (1960, 1970, 1974):

Table 7: Median Income of Year-Round Full-Time Civilian Workers 14 Years Old and Over with Income by Age and Sex: 1960, 1970, 1974

(Numbers in thousands. Medians in current dollars. Age as of March of the following year.)

Age and sex	1974		1970		1960	
	Number	Median income	Number	Median income	Number*	Median income
WOMEN						
Total with income ...	18,017	$6,957	15,518	$5,440	10,337	$3,296
14 to 19 years	467	3,875	335	3,783	311	2,450
20 to 24 years	2,704	5,849	2,224	4,928	1,223	3,155
25 to 34 years	4,411	7,604	2,899	5,923	1,795	3,549
35 to 44 years	3,410	7,418	3,081	5,531	2,553	3,404
45 to 54 years	3,943	7,359	3,865	5,588	2,581	3,296
55 to 64 years	2,716	7,044	2,690	5,468	1,541	3,275
65 years and over	365	6,085	423	4,884	283	2,838
MEN						
Total with income ...	38,915	$12,152	36,146	$9,184	32,165	$5,435
14 to 19 years	696	4,492	419	3,950	321	1,974
20 to 24 years	3,567	7,709	2,700	6,655	1,973	3,916
25 to 34 years	10,492	12,037	8,763	9,126	7,790	5,450
35 to 44 years	8,617	13,586	8,649	10,258	8,868	5,907
45 to 54 years	8,758	13,641	8,756	9,931	7,452	5,678
55 to 64 years	5,776	12,454	5,757	9,071	4,730	5,079
65 years and over	1,009	8,670	1,102	6,754	1,156	4,115
RATIO: WOMEN/MEN						
Total with income ...	0.46	0.57	0.43	0.59	0.32	0.61
14 to 19 years	0.67	0.86	0.80	0.96	0.97	1.24
20 to 24 years	0.76	0.76	0.82	0.74	0.62	0.81
25 to 34 years	0.42	0.63	0.33	0.65	0.23	0.65
35 to 44 years	0.40	0.55	0.36	0.54	0.29	0.58
45 to 54 years	0.45	0.54	0.44	0.56	0.35	0.58
55 to 64 years	0.47	0.57	0.47	0.60	0.33	0.64
65 years and over	0.36	0.70	0.38	0.72	0.24	0.69

*Numbers were derived by multiplying total number of persons with income by the percent of year-round full-time workers with income; figures, therefore, are less exact than comparable ones for 1974 and 1970.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60, Nos. 99, 80, and 37.

-- Taken from A Statistical Portrait of Women in the United States, 1976, p. 47.

Weekly Earnings by Sex (1967-1976):

Table 8: Median usual weekly earning of full-time wage and salary workers by sex, 1967-1976

Year	Usual weekly earnings				Women's earnings as percent of men's
	In current dollars		In 1967 dollars		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	
May of:					
1967	$78	$125	$78	$125	62%
1969	86	142	79	130	61
1970	94	151	81	131	62
1971	100	162	83	134	62
1972	106	168	85	135	63
1973	116	188	88	143	62
1974	124	204	85	140	61
1975	137	221	86	138	62
1976	145	234	86	138	62

-- from U. S. Working Women: A Databook, p. 34

Earnings by Occupation and Sex (1974):

This chart is reproduced on the following page, FP 1[illegible]

Employed Persons by Sex and Occupation (1974):

This chart is reproduced on p. FP 17, and shows that women are concentrated in fewer occupational categories than men. One should note that though 15% of women are in the "professional and technical" category, this category includes the occupation of "teacher."

Earnings by Race and Sex (1964, 1974):

This chart is reproduced on p. FP 18, and is intended to show the effects of double discrimination--race and sex--by which minority women end up in the lowest income bracket.

Economic Need of Women in the Labor Force (1975):

This chart is reproduced on p. FP 19. It is intended to show that most women are working out of economic necessity, not just for self-fulfillment. It demonstrates that 68% of women in the labor force never married; are widowed, divorced, or separated; or are married with husband present who earns less than $10,000 per year.

This chart is intended to combat the argument that women shouldn't be working because they don't need it. One should note, however, that this argument has not been applied to men.

Table 9: Total Money Earnings of Civilian Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Occupation Group and Sex, 1974

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Occupation group	Women	Men	Dollar gap	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's
Total	$6,772	$11,835	$5,063	57.2%	74.8%
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	9,570	14,873	5,303	64.3	55.4
Managers and administrators	8,603	15,425	6,822	55.8	79.3
Sales workers, total	5,168	12,523	7,355	41.3	142.3
Retail trade	4,734	9,125	4,391	51.9	92.8
Other sales workers	8,452	13,983	5,531	60.4	65.4
Clerical workers	6,827	11,514	4,687	59.3	68.7
Craft and kindred workers	6,492	12,028	5,536	54.0	85.3
Operatives (including transport)	5,766	10,176	4,410	56.7	76.5
Service workers (except private household)	5,046	8,638	3,592	58.4	71.2
Farmers and farm managers	*	5,459	--	--	--
Farm laborers and supervisors	*	5,097	--	--	--
Nonfarm laborers	5,891	8,145	2,254	72.3	38.3
Private household workers	2,676	*	--	--	--

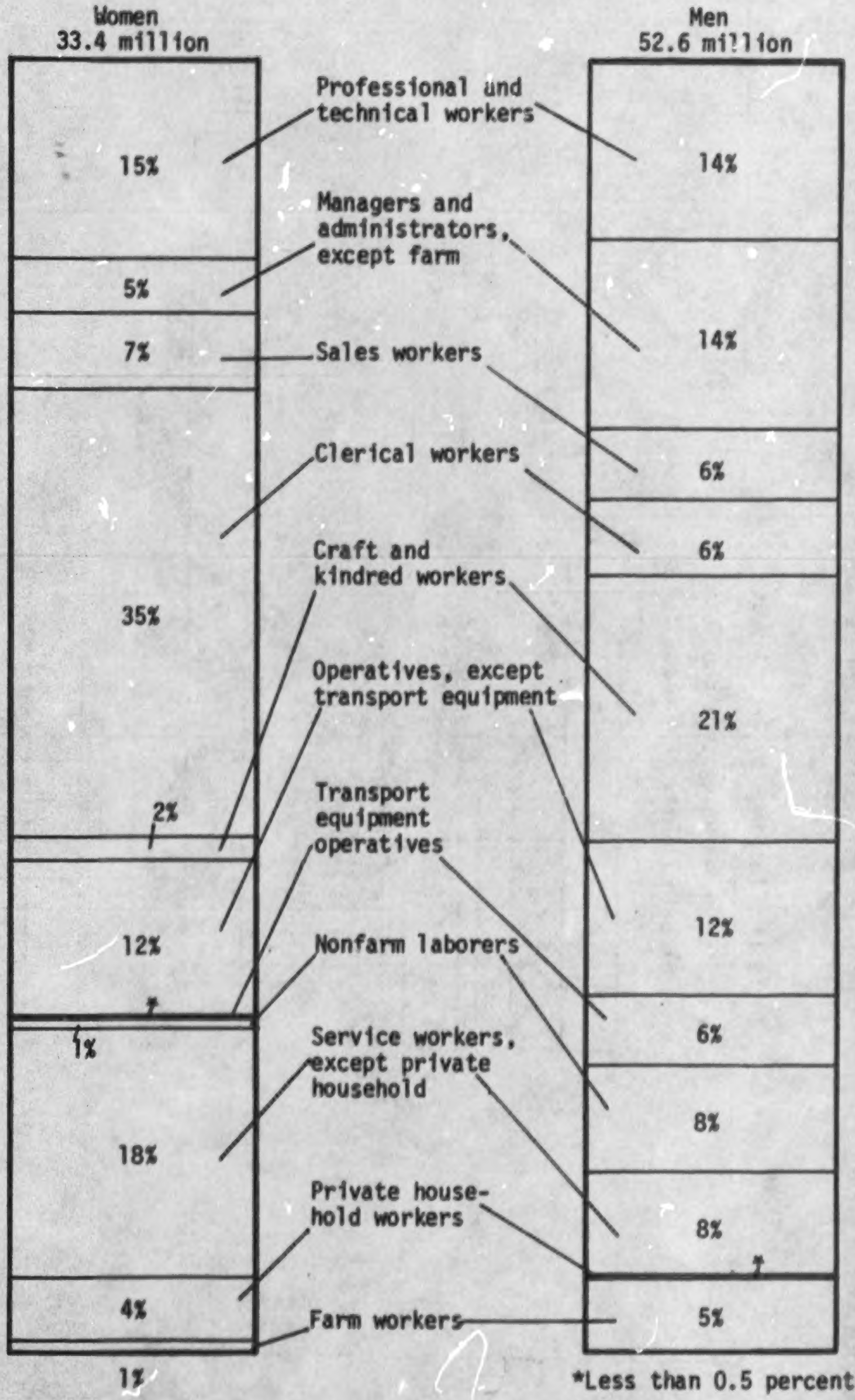
* Base less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: Current Population Reports, P-60, No. 101.

-- The Earnings Gap between Women and Men, 1976, p. 8

Table 10:
Employed
Persons by
Sex and
Occupation,
1974

(annual averages)



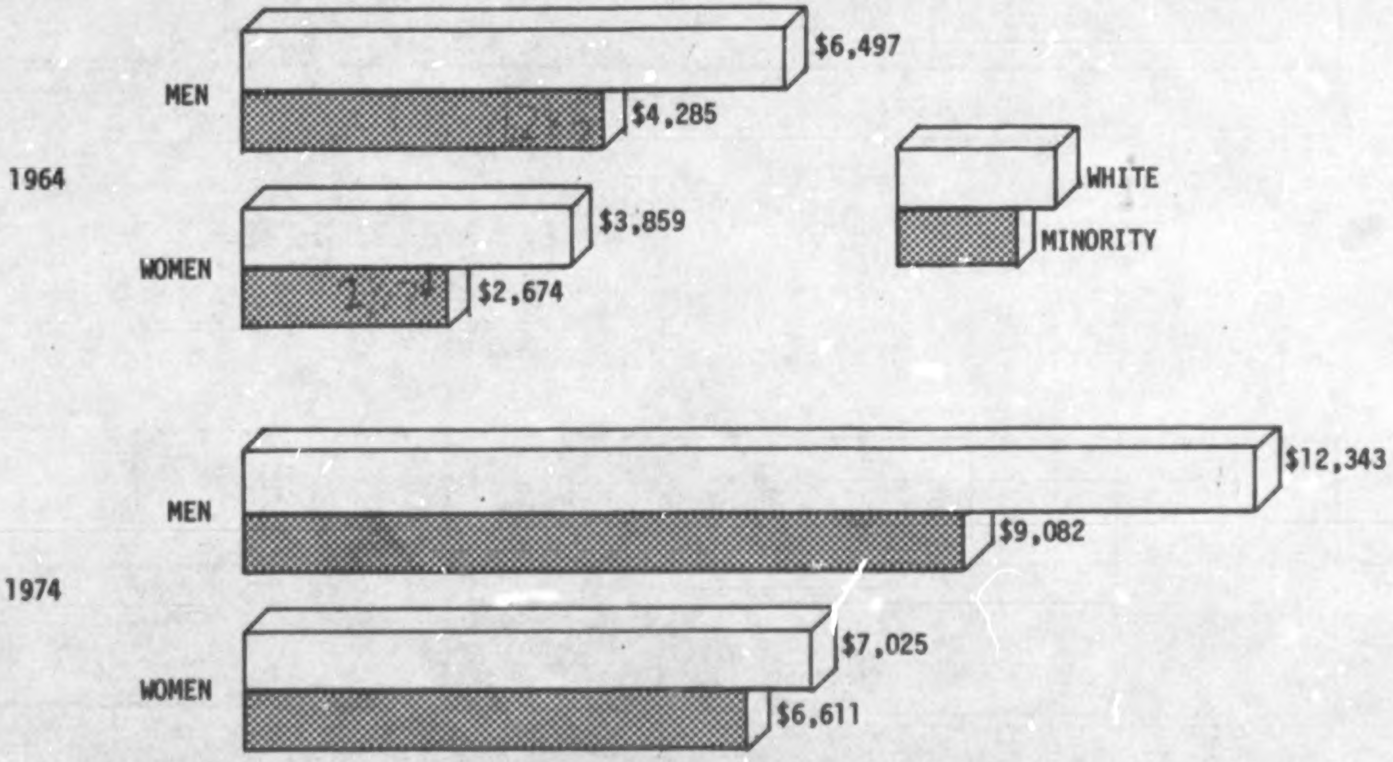
*Less than 0.5 percent

This chart taken from U. S. Working Women: A Chartbook (Bulletin 1880), 1975

Women are concentrated in fewer occupational categories than men.

Table 11: Earnings by Race and Sex (1964, 1974)

Fully Employed Women Continue To Earn Less Than Fully Employed Men of Either White or Minority* Races



*Includes all races other than white.

Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, from data published by the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce.

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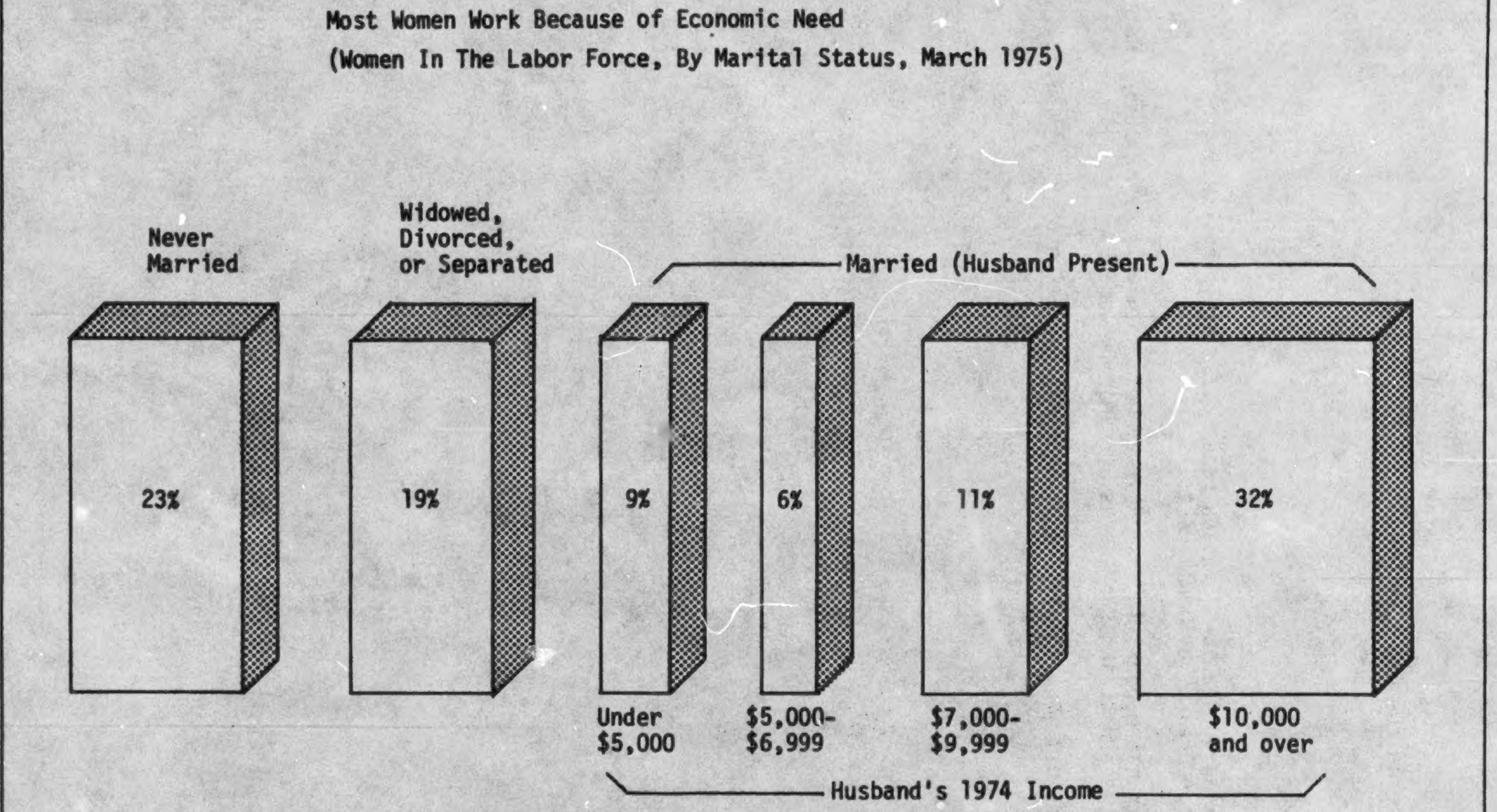
-- This chart received from Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor

Table 12: Economic Need of Women in the Labor Force (1975)



Source: Prepared by the Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, from data published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

FP 19

-- This publication received from Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor

H. "Enlarging the American Dream"

Following on the next fifteen pages is an article, "Enlarging the American Dream," by Donna Hart.

The article appears in its entirety because of its information and analysis concerning the status of minority women.

The article is originally from American Education, May 1977, Vol. 13, No. 4.

ENLARGING THE AMERICAN DREAM[1]

by Donna Hart[2]

Traditionally, American society has been willing to accept culturally different peoples if they in turn were willing to reject their cultural distinctiveness. Assimilation, until the late 1960s, was accepted by almost everyone, educators and large segments of most ethnic communities prominently included. During the past decade, however, an emerging sense of heritage that is being more and more proudly expressed by racial minority and national origin groups is changing all this.

The past definition of education's function--to remodel citizens for conformity to a single homogeneous model of acceptable behavior and beliefs--is being challenged. Many Americans now contend that democratic education should have cultural pluralism as a goal. They argue that the rich cultural mix in America--the different values, customs, traditions, and religions--can expand everyone's horizons as it affects all aspects of life, including sex-role attitudes and issues of concern in education.

This article presents an overview of the impact of the women's movement on cultural norms and heritage and the cultural differences and educational experiences of five minority groups--Puerto Rican, Chicano, Black, Asian, and Native American. Though these five groups by no means represent all minority women, they do indicate the needs of a major segment of minority women as they differ from the needs of Anglo women.

BLACK WOMEN

Black women, victims of double discrimination because of their race and sex, are often asked to make a choice with regard to their priorities: "Are you black first, or female first?" The plain fact is that they are both and have no way to separate the two. Many black women believe that the effort to *force* a separation of the two, especially as that relates to establishment of society priorities, has worked to the detriment of both the racial movement and the women's movement. The black woman is the victim of both racism and sexism, and therefore represents a potentially powerful unifying force around issues for both movements.

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[1] From: American Education, May 1977, Vol. 13, No. 4.

[2] Ms. Hart is on the faculty of the School of Education, George Washington University. The following reviewed drafts of the issue paper from which this article was taken: Cecilia Preciado-Burciaga, assistant for Chicano Affairs, Stanford; Francelia Gleaves, Project on Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges; Edith Thomas Harvey, director of Equal Education, Nebraska Department of Education; Pat Locke and Paquito Vivo, directors of Ethnic Studies, Western Interstate Commission of Higher Education; Jeanie Myerson and Beverly Orr, staff writers, National Project on Women's Education.

In a piece included in *Voices of the New Feminism*, writer Pauli Murray says, "Because black women have an equal stake in women's liberation and black liberation, they are key figures at the juncture of these two movements. White women feminists are their natural allies in both cases. Their own liberation is linked with the issues that are stirring women today: adequate income maintenance and the elimination of poverty, repeal or reform of abortion laws, a national system of child-care centers, extension of labor standards to workers now excluded, cash maternity benefits as part of a system of social insurance, and the removal of all sex barriers to educational and employment opportunities at all levels. Black women have a special stake in the revolt against the treatment of women primarily as sex objects, for their own history has left them with the scars of the most brutal and degrading aspects of sexual exploitation."

The notion that the black female enjoys a favored economic position in relation to the male is a myth. The belief that black women have always been "liberated," and therefore do not need to be involved in a movement to liberate women, is also a myth. The media-produced stereotype of the women's movement as a middle-class white woman's struggle to escape from housework and child rearing, to get out of her home and into the job market ignores the black woman who may have been a family breadwinner but who lacked the opportunity to make free choices concerning her life.

Historically, these "breadwinner" jobs have been the result of the economic structure's need for cheap labor. Because of an economic necessity of earning a living to help support the family and a need for the black community to draw heavily upon the resources of all its members in order to survive, black women have taken jobs that few others would accept; thereby they unwittingly aided in creating the myth of the female's dominance in the black family. This illustrates how racism has affected the relationships between black males and females. As black men develop access to the economic power structure, black women for the first time have wife or worker options that many white women have had for a long time.

Diane Slaughter of the University of Chicago, in examining the different adaptive strategies black women have arrived at, suggests, "The strongest conception of womanhood that exists among all pre-adult females is that of the woman who has to take a strong role in the family. They [the pre-adult females] accepted the situation as part of life and tradition in the black community. It is against this backdrop that the symbol of the resourceful woman becomes an influential model in their lives."

As a result of her research, Afro-American sociologist Joyce Ladner sees three primary agents of socialization for the pre-adolescent black female: 1) the immediate and extended family; 2) the peer group; and 3) negative community influences such as exposure to rape, poverty, violence, and the like. The strong personality that results from exposure to the harshness of life enhances the girl's chances for survival and her adequate functioning within society. To "survive," the black woman must "make it" as a mother and a worker.

Consequently, over the years, education has been one of the black movement's priorities. The black woman's aspirations toward education are associated with an emphasis on career possibilities that are seen as making possible or easing the maintenance of the black family.

Despite the faith of black women in the education system as a means for social and economic advancement, equal education has not assured them equal access to opportunity. Black women with degrees equivalent to those held by men and white women have been unable to obtain equivalent jobs. The gap between the salaries of black men and women has widened. Both black and white women with some college education earn less than a black male who has only eight years of education.

Although the black woman has made great strides in recent years in closing the educational gap, she still suffers from inadequate education and training. In 1974, approximately 75 percent of black women had completed high school compared with 85 percent of white women. Although there was a 56 percent increase in college enrollment of blacks between 1970 and 1974, only 16 percent of black women were enrolled in college at the end of that period. A college degree is attained by only 7.6 percent of black women.

Since 1970, little evidence exists of any advance in the relative earnings of black females. A look at the jobs in the top five percent of the earnings distribution shows that black females held none of them in 1960 and essentially none in 1973. Black women earn less than white women (a median income of $2,810), are employed in greater numbers (about 60 percent between the ages of 20 and 54), and hold a greater percentage of low-paying, low-status jobs (54 percent are employed as operatives or service workers). In 1975, 35 percent of black families were headed by women who earned a median income of only $4,465. That there is still a large number of black women in the labor force reflects to a considerable degree their continuing obligation to supply a substantial proportion of family income. It also suggests that educational attainments, no matter how small, raise participation rates more for black than for white women.

The quandary of black women is how best to distribute their energies among the multiple barriers of poverty, race, and sex, and what strategies to pursue to minimize conflicting interests and objectives.

More and more, young black women are starting to think about their futures as black women in the United States. They are not accepting societal interpretations of their roles. In the process of thinking things through they are being realistic about the roles that they will embrace. Black women will still have to work, but they want to work at jobs that are more challenging and that more fully use their strengths and talents. They want quality education and training to develop their abilities and interests. They want education that respects cultural differences and that educates for liberation and survival.

PUERTO RICAN WOMEN

In immigrating to the states, Puerto Ricans differ in one main respect from most other minorities who preceded them: They come as American citizens. Nevertheless, numerous problems--differences in customs, racial inequalities, and a limited knowledge of English among them--have restricted their social, economic, and educational success.

Many Puerto Ricans report that the family, which is very important in traditional Puerto Rican culture, experiences a tremendous shock when it is transplanted from Puerto Rico to the mainland. No role in the Puerto Rican American family has been more challenged by immigration than that of the father. In traditional Puerto Rican culture the man is the undisputed head of the household. Meanwhile, the "good woman" obeys her husband and stays at home, working long hours while caring for the children. But whether head of household or "good woman," the individual subordinates his or her wants and needs to those of the family.

On the U.S. mainland, where women have more prominence and stature, these traditional Puerto Rican roles are undercut. Puerto Rican women are not shielded from mainland differences. Economic need often projects them into the labor force where they are confronted by the greater expectation of women's roles. Then, too, the school and community teach Puerto Rican children that they should have more freedom, be more aggressive and independent, and should speak English rather than Spanish. These influences change the traditional roles within the family, causing strains, role conflicts, and identity confusion.

The Puerto Rican woman often drops out of school at an early age to enter the labor force (at the lowest level) in the hope that her wages will help her family out of a life of poverty. When she is able to find a job, she faces serious disadvantages, not least among them her lack of knowledge of English and the lack of bilingual programs in her community. Adequate training is another lack that keeps a decent salary out of reach, a situation that further compounds her housing, health, and other problems.

Of no assistance to her plight are discriminating hiring practices that have Puerto Rican women working for a lower wage than Puerto Rican men despite equal pay legislation. Many of the available opportunities have been so-called "women's jobs," which are economically and politically powerless and amount to nothing more than low-paid unskilled drudgery.

Supporting this glum picture of Puerto Rican women in America are the 1975 U.S. Census figures that show 1.7 million Puerto Ricans in the United States, 906,000 of them female, of whom only 154,000 have jobs. More than half of Puerto Rican women participating in the labor force are operative or service workers, and 68 percent of those working earned incomes below $5,000. The most recent data indicate that 31 percent of Puerto Rican households in the United States are headed by women who earn a median income of $3,889.

Puerto Rican women in America complete an average of 9.5 years of school. Only 25 percent of them attain a high-school education and a mere three percent are college graduates. Their educational attainments, like their employment, are hampered by their imperfect grasp of English and their identity confusion, which is often exacerbated by mainland prejudice and their own sense of being strangers in a foreign country. Of significant concern to Puerto Rican women is how much the lack of access to "mainstream" education influences their social and economic situations.

Puerto Rican women in the United States are still struggling with racial as well as sexual discrimination in housing, education, and hiring. They find the women's movement defined by Anglo-American standards and often oblivious to the special needs and strengths of minority women. They feel that the movement has tended to ignore and obscure the racist issue, resulting in double discrimination for minority women.

Puerto Rican women will not separate themselves from their cultural heritage or be alienated from their men. They strongly support the qualities of womanhood, strong family ties, and respect for the family as an institution. They will accept a movement that confronts sexism, but not one that divides the sexes. If the movement appeals to the issue of basic human rights, to the values inherent in the freedom of both sexes from sexism, and to the proposition that when a woman has freedom of choice this also frees the man--if this, in fact, is the meaning of the women's movement, then many Puerto Rican women will support it.

MEXICAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

Mexican-Americans constitute the second largest minority in the United States today, and more than 90 percent of them are city dwellers. Vilma Martinez, a young Chicana (feminine form of Chicano) lawyer, has speculated that "in 15 or 20 years the Hispanic population will surpass the black population. Our citizens must be awakened to the ramifications of this fact: Hispanos are a nationally significant, and not a regional, group."

Historically, the Chicano family has been patriarchal and authoritarian. Economic, social, and political leadership in Chicano communities traditionally has been male-based. Education, sexual liberties, and material comforts have been for the men, with the women taking a subordinate, supportive role within the family. The Chicana was controlled by her parents until she married and then had to be faithful to her husband and children.

Chicanos often place a greater emphasis on the family as a unit than on its individual members. Parents stress the use of Spanish as their children's primary language, insisting that to give up Spanish would be to say that one's ancestors accounted for nothing and that one's culture had made no impression on the history of the Southwest. The feeling prevails that the family nucleus would disintegrate if the children could not speak in Spanish to their grandparents.

Chicana leaders see three distinct choices open to Mexican-American women: The Chicana can adopt the traditional sex role, imitating the rural Mexican woman whose place is in the home; she can choose a dual role in which she is bilingual and begins to move away from traditional religious and family sex-role images; or she can cut her cultural ties and identify with the "liberated" middle-class white woman.

This diversity of role models for women within the Chicana community requires special consideration by education policy-makers. Chicanas themselves express the need for having specific role models which they can follow at all education levels--elementary, secondary, community college, and higher education. And they're talking about teachers and administrators, not just Chicanas in school cafeterias. Many of them are looking beyond community-college training as secretaries or as cosmetologists.

Educational and vocational training opportunities must, therefore, be made more accessible and relevant to Chicanas' lives. The deficiencies in our educational system as it relates to Chicanas are underscored in that Chicanas complete an average of only nine years of school. One-fourth of them have completed less than five years of school, 23 percent have completed high school, and only 2.2 percent of those 25 years of age and older are college graduates.

These low figures do not translate the zeal with which Chicanas seek education despite the many obstacles. One formidable barrier is hydra-headed discrimination because of race, color, national origin, language, and sex-role socialization. Then there are damaging or inadequate counseling, ill-prepared and unmotivated teachers, culturally biased achievement tests, inequality of school finances, tracking into noncollege preparatory courses, economic deprivation, and a lack of role models.

Parents of Chicanas recognize the value of education as a tool for survival in a complex society. They encourage their daughters to pursue education, and there is a sense of family pride about a daughter's attendance at college. But parents also want Chicanas to remember their traditional family values and roles. Thus under pressure to succeed as both student and Chicana within a strange, impersonal, and often inflexible college environment, the young woman becomes vulnerable--and little wonder--to the despair and frustration that account for the high dropout rate of Mexican-American women.

Nor can the economic realities that often preclude interest in and access to educational attainment be overlooked. The annual income of Chicanas in 1974 demonstrates a cycle of poverty, with 76 percent of them earning less than $5,000. In terms of earning power as compared to all other Spanish-origin women, the Chicana is at the bottom, earning a median annual income of $2,682. It must also be noted that Chicanas are increasingly in the labor force because of economic need and responsibility as heads of households; 14 percent of Chicano families are supported by Chicanas, and one-half of these are below the poverty level.

Chicanas have tended to be suspicious of the woman's movement, which came about just as the minority movement was gaining momentum. Hostility toward white women who have moved into the forefront with their "sexual politics" results from the Chicanas feeling that class interests have been obscured by the issue of sex, which is easier to substantiate and to deal with than are the complexities of race.

Chicanas, along with many other minority women, question whether or not white women in power positions will perform any differently than their white male predecessors. Will white women work for humanity's benefit? Will they use their power to give entry skills and opportunities to minorities? Chicanas have seen little evidence of white women addressing these broader needs or exhibiting an understanding of the minority-wide issue of redistribution of income levels.

Bea Vasquez Robinson of the National Chicana Coalition succinctly states the minority women's position vis-à-vis the women's movement: "To expect a Chicana who has felt the degradation of racism to embrace a movement that is once more dominated by whites is childish." And in another instance, "We will join forces to the extent that you white women are willing to fight, not for token jobs or frills, but rather go to the roots of our common oppression and struggle for economic equality."

The Chicanas' prime concerns are economic survival and the continuance of their culture. Their issues are broader than sexism; theirs are racism and cultural pluralism as well.

AMERICAN INDIAN WOMEN

In any discussion of American Indian women, it is necessary to keep in mind the diversity among the 789 tribal entities existing today. Writing for the *HUD Challenge*, social scientist Regina Holyan says, "Some tribes allow and encourage prominent authoritative behavior on the part of their women, while other tribes such as the Navajo and Cherokee prefer that their women not act conspicuously in decision-making roles. These conflicting expectations by different tribes place Indian women in sensitive situations when they must interact with members of other tribes."

Nonetheless, like the Chicanas, American Indian women may choose among three separate subcultural roles: the traditionalist, stressing adherence to the tribal religion and cultural patterns; the moderate that retains elements of the traditional Indian heritage and customs while adjusting to the dominant white societal patterns; and the progressive, which replaces the traditional culture with the modern white beliefs and values. Educators need to be aware of these different role choices and to avoid influencing Indian students to choose a role based on the expectations of whites.

Among the cultural values basic to many tribes is an emphasis on living for today--in harmony with nature, with no time consciousness, with a concern for giving, not accumulating, a respect for age, and a desire for sharing and cooperating. These values are often in direct opposition to those stressed by the dominant culture's educational program. The white way of life is future oriented, time conscious, and competitive. It places great importance on youth, the conquest of nature, and long-term saving.

For over a century the federal government, largely through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, has assumed the responsibility for educating Native Americans to the standards of the general population. Because the Indians must live in the white man's world, their sense of survival tells them that education is the way to success, even though they may not agree with many of the practices of the schools their children attend.

Despite the availability of free schooling, only 6.2 percent of Indian females and 5.8 percent of Indian males in the Southwest have completed eight years of school. Data from the 1970 Census, however, indicated that women in the total American Indian population complete a median of 10.5 years of school with just over a third (34.6 percent) graduating from high school. Although female Indians attain more years of formal education than do males, they have been shown to be dramatically less acculturated than Indian males.

Census data also show that only 50 percent of American Indian women report English as their mother tongue. This means that English is a second language for half of the Indian women. Educational policy-makers--especially at the elementary level--must be aware of the high incidence of English language deficiencies among Indian females and plan programs accordingly.

There is a real need for American Indians to participate in formulating education policy for reinforcement of the distinct tribal belief systems and value systems. Indians look upon self-determination as a necessity, especially in view of tribal diversity and the different learning styles that exist among the tribes. Yet Indian women often perceive federal programs and the women's movement as sidestepping their particular wants and strengths and threatening family unit because these programs encourage them to seek their own self-satisfying goals. This is to say that though Indians will not dispute that education is necessary for survival, they dislike the specific methods because they disrupt their culture and often have the effect of channeling Indian women into domestic jobs and other low-paying positions.

Preservation of the family with the nurturing of children within the family structure is the prime goal of Indian-made policy. Should the Indians feel a federal program to be in conflict with this policy, they can choose not to take part in it. That decision, however, is not without serious consequence: Not to participate can result in an effective block to progressive self-help by closing off economic and educational opportunities. Lack of education also prevents the American Indian from working from within the education and political systems where weighty issues must be dealt with: How, for instance, is access to educational funding on both federal and state levels gained by Indian tribes individually? Who controls and uses the funding once it is gained? How can self-determination be enacted within existing guidelines for receiving educational funding?

Thus the Indian student has two life styles to learn. On the one hand, the ways of the white, predominant culture must be learned as a

POSSIBLE STRATEGIES TO MEET THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND STRENGTHS OF MINORITY WOMEN

FEDERAL EDUCATION AGENCIES AND FOUNDATIONS

- Conduct and encourage research into the problems and concerns shared by minority women in the area of education.
- Organize on national or regional levels a clearinghouse for information exchange on minority women and relevant resource personnel, materials, and programs.

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

- Interpret Title IX with a sensitivity to multiculturism, recognizing the double jeopardy of sex and race.
- Include multicultural female representatives in planning and developing programs for minority women and girls.
- Encourage and provide equal employment opportunities for hiring minority women in administrative and decision-making positions.
- Retrain educators, counselors, and administrators to sensitize them to the special needs and concerns of minority female students.
- Require teacher-training and certification programs to include intense self-evaluation sensitivity to multiculturism.

LOCAL EDUCATION AGENCIES

- Include minority women and community members on the board of directors or trustees.
- Encourage minority women to prepare for career advancement and provide adequate training opportunities.

EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS (PRESCHOOL THROUGH COLLEGE)

- Recruit minority women into administrative, faculty, and student ranks.
- Provide special stipends and allowances for minority female students from low-income families.
- Adopt day-care, tutorial, and counseling services to enable minority women to partake of educational opportunities.

(cont.)

- Initiate special placement efforts for minority female graduates.
- Expand and enrich adult-education opportunities so that parents and children are exposed to acculturation at a more closely related pace.
- Encourage and preserve bilingualism.
- Emphasize in school and college curriculums the literature, music, art, dance, games, and sports of minority cultures.
- Make effective use of community resources and develop incentives for community participation.
- Evaluate regularly and systematically school programs that involve minorities.

survival skill, though Indian women caution against these ways being permitted to "vitiate" or influence tribal style. On the other hand, the Indian life content, which now is learned only through the home, must be learned simultaneously as standards and values. The Indian woman must be effective in both areas and aware of the appropriate responses expected of her in different situations.

Employment and job opportunities for Indian women are, naturally, affected by the level and quality of their educational background. More Indian women than any other group (86 percent) earn less than $5,000 per year. Thirty-five percent of Indian women participated in the labor force in 1970, and as a group they earned a median annual income of $1,697. Seventy percent were in the powerless and vulnerable position of clerks, operatives, and domestic service workers. Although there were two wage earners in almost half the Indian households in 1969, their median family income was a mere $3,300. American Indians, the smallest and poorest of all America's ethnic groups, "stand in a class by themselves when it comes to suffering economic deprivation," according to economist Lester Thurow.

For the most part, Indian women believe that working toward the improvement of the status of Indians as a people is where their efforts should be directed and not solely toward their status as Indian women. As a Winnebago woman put it, "We Indian women do not feel oppressed in the Indian world. We are more concerned with the problems of racial discrimination." An Isleta Pueblo woman observes that Indian women have a concept of equal rights that is different from that of the women's movement; they believe that acquiring equal rights does not necessarily mean that Indian women want to attain equal leverage in tribal matters. And Minerva White, a Seneca, recently said, "We have had women's liberation for five thousand years; we have been liberated for five thousand years, and so that is not an issue for us."

Because Indians do not make the same kinds of sex-role distinctions whites make, and because Indian women, especially those of matrilineal tribes, influence tribal economic decisions and are in decision-making positions, these women are not generally sympathetic to the women's movement. They accept the reality of social changes occurring, but ask little beyond a voice and some control over the directions of the changes that are profoundly affecting the lives within their tribe.

ASIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

Asian-Americans, like American Indians, are a highly diversified ethnic group. The Asian-American population includes Koreans, Indians, Pakistani, Vietnamese, Indonesians, Thais, Malaysians, and a wide representation of Pacific peoples such as Samoans, Guamanians, and native Hawaiians. Americans of Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino origins are also included, and because more detailed research and description are available for them, they will, for the purpose of this discussion, represent all Asian-Americans.

Asians today constitute less than one percent of the population in the United States, although the importance of their presence in this country, past and present, far outweighs their numbers. From a background of "unskilled" labor and objects of discrimination, Asian-Americans have reached comparatively high levels of educational and occupational achievement. Chinese and Japanese, the most prominent of the Asian-descended groups in America, are often pointed out as the "successful" minority groups.

The first Census data of 1910 showed that 78 percent of the Japanese in this country were male, as were 89 percent of the Filipinos and 90 percent of the Chinese. Because recent immigration has almost consistently introduced more females than males into each of the Asian-American communities, the sex ratios have changed considerably. The Japanese and Korean populations are now predominantly female, partly a reflection of the number of war brides brought back by returning servicemen. The Chinese and Filipinos continue to be predominantly male.

A comparison of the labor-force status of women shows that a larger percentage of Asian-American women (50 percent) work outside the home than do black (48 percent) or white women (41 percent). A little over 55 percent of Filipino women and 42 percent of Korean women work; whereas Japanese and Chinese women occupy an intermediate position with 49 percent taking jobs, according to 1970 Census data. All in all the proportion of Asian-American females gainfully employed is higher than the national average, and this does not take into account the unpaid women in family-operated businesses, since many of these women do not classify themselves as "employed."

Although many Asian-American women are highly educated, having attended or completed college, they are nevertheless concentrated in the positions of bookkeepers, secretaries, typists, file clerks, and the like. "They are qualified for better jobs," says Betty Lee Sung of the Department of Asian Studies at City College of the City University of New York, "but are the victims of sexism more than racism."

Levels of unemployment of Japanese-American and Chinese-American women are generally low, even slightly lower than those for whites. In 1970, for example, the unemployment rate was only 3.7 percent for Chinese women. The problem is not in getting a job, but rather in the kind of job and the salary it pays. Many recent Chinese immigrants, fresh off the plane, can walk into one of the small garment factories scattered throughout any Chinatown or its peripheral area and start working the next day. They work by the piece and their hours are fairly flexible. Piece work at low rates is always available.

The presence of very young children has not limited the level of occupational achievement for young working Asian women. Chinese mothers show higher levels of occupational achievement than childless, never-married Chinese women. This is true also for Filipino women, although to a lesser extent than for the Chinese. This situation may represent a cultural carry-over from the traditional Asian pattern in which middle-class Asian mothers are inclined to be employed. By Asian custom, older children help to take care of younger ones, thereby relieving mothers of these family duties during the day. Hence, the Asian "day-care" program is conducted within the home and family.

Chinese-American women are marrying later and limiting their families probably because they are spending more years in school. In 1970, the median years of schooling for each Asian-American group was slightly above the white attainment of 12.1 years. Today, differences in years of completed schooling among Asians and whites of both sexes have virtually disappeared.

Census data for 1970 indicate that 23 percent of Filipino and 58 percent of Chinese-American women between 18 and 24 years of age are in college. About three-fourths of all Japanese-Americans finish high school. Figures like these indicate that many families have shed the centuries-old belief that females are spoiled for wifehood and motherhood if they acquire some education. It is generally the foreign-born female who is the most deprived and, hence, the most handicapped. Her occupational sphere is, therefore, extremely circumscribed and limited to the most simple and menial jobs.

Many Americans are unaware that more Chinese-Americans are born abroad than are born in the United States. The foreign-born ratio will probably become greater as immigration exceeds native births. In essence, the Chinese-American population is largely a first-generation or immigrant-generation population. The tremendous adjustment that first-generation Chinese-Americans must make puts them at a disadvantage in every respect. They must re-educate themselves completely and quickly.

Most Americans assume that Asian-Americans have no social problems, an assumption which restricts the access of Asian-Americans to funds available to minority groups. As a result they have been forced to form self-help organizations in their own communities, an action leading to the misconception that Asians "take care of their own."

One segment of the Asian population most in need of help are those who cannot speak, read, or write English. Illiteracy is generally a problem with those over 45, especially the women. The younger generations are highly educated and bilingual, regardless of sex. However, in the 1970 Census, only four percent of the Chinese living in New York listed English as their mother tongue. In California, 12 percent and in Hawaii, 44 percent did so. That the Chinese have clung to their language more tenaciously than most other national groups is commendable and could provide a national resource of bilingual people.

Another problem Asian-Americans often encounter is the American cultural values that are in conflict with many traditional Asian values. For example, many Asian cultures have emphasized strict loyalty to the family, which trains children to avoid controversial, potentially embarrassing situations. Strict self-control and discipline were mandatory. As a result, Asians, especially women, often have appeared to be reserved, self-conscious, and reticent, finding continuity, permanence, and personal security in the close relations of the family. In contrast, dominant American culture now comprises a majority of single, nuclear families with few multigenerational living arrangements.

Another example would be American competitiveness based on "each for himself," a notion alien to most Asians. However, in the process of acculturation and upward mobility, many Asians have adopted the more expressive and assertive style of the dominant culture. Betty Lee Sung asserts that the tendency is becoming increasingly prevalent for Asian-Americans to believe that, in order to adjust to living in the United States, one must embrace the American way in toto and cast off the Asian heritage completely. She also believes that great psychological damage will result for these Asian-Americans. Instead, she holds, Asian-American women and men should strive for a culturally pluralistic society in which they can preserve their heritages while contributing to American social, civic, and educational life.

Like many foreign women, Asian-American women have been neatly categorized by stereotype milled in white imaginations. Asian women are often described as being docile, submissive, and sexless. Or they may be exotic, sexy, and diabolical. They are often presented as objects or commodities rather than as persons with ideas, aspirations, talents, and feelings.

A situation familiar to many Asian women comes as a consequence of recent immigration. Since the end of World War II, more than 500,000 women of foreign nationality have entered the United States as spouses of Americans. Over one-third of these women were from Asian countries. Professor Bok-Lim Kim of the University of Illinois has found that many of these women experience a host of adjustment problems. Reports of severe physical abuse and deprivation are not uncommon. In one study made at Washington State, Professor Kim noted that divorce or separation among Asian wives of military men resulted in over 20 percent of those in the study becoming female heads of households. (This figure is in contrast to the six percent of Chinese-American and eight percent of Filipino-American female heads of households.) These Asian wives are often unable to seek help because of their isolation, lack of proficiency in English, unfamiliarity with the life style, and fear of outside contacts.

Young Asian-American women, especially those who are third generation, are feeling a void and are expressing a need and desire to rediscover their ethnicity. These women are more liberated and more assertive. They are challenging the monocultural ideal of the majority society to acknowledge, analyze, and incorporate Asian-American women and men at all social, political, educational, and economical levels. Fundamental changes in the American educational process toward a goal of cultural pluralism is a realistic response to their peculiar needs and strengths.

Minority women by and large are concerned with how Anglo society--its educational institutions in particular--has attempted to divorce them from their cultural heritage and alienate them from their men. They want to share the belief that the only route to fulfillment of the American Dream is by perseverance and education. Yet the present educational system often militates against such goals for minorities and especially females.

Many minority women are high-school dropouts. Consequently they look to secondary-school programs to be made more relevant and available to them. In like vein higher education, a recent alternative for many minority women, needs to be demystified. College role models in their immediate families are still rarely found because most minority women in college today are the first in their families to be there. Setting this kind of precedent puts pressure on the young women, brought on by expectations from both their families and themselves. Those who make it through four years of college soon become painfully aware that the job benefits which should follow are often limited. Many college-educated minority women are unable to get white-collar jobs at a professional level.

The fact is that minority women frequently explain their problems in economic terms. The kinds of jobs open to them is a smarting issue to these women. Of 36 million women in the labor force, 4.7 million are minorities, constituting more than 40 percent of all minority workers. Discriminatory hiring practices based on racist and sexist factors still prevail and are just further complicated when minority women have educational attainments, the more educated often finding themselves underemployed and underpaid. It is often the case that both white and minority women with some college education earn less than minority men with less than a high-school education.

Generally, however, the more education a woman has the more likely she is to be in the skilled or professional labor force. New job opportunities in expanding occupations and additional schooling are almost certain to place more minority women in the labor force.

Statistics indicate that most minority women workers are high-school graduates. March, 1974, figures showed 61 percent had graduated from high school, including ten percent who had completed four or more years of college. The comparable figures for white women were 75 and 14 percent, respectively. Because minority women complete a median 12.3 years of schooling, the educational system must plan and implement instruction that will meet their special needs during these 12 years.

One purpose of the educational system is to equip all learners with satisfying and rewarding competencies for entering the world of work in the field of one's choice. The curriculum and instruction used in preparing the professionals who will work with minority girls and women must reflect the heritage, needs, and concerns of the various minorities. Cultural pluralism, a relatively new idea in education, addresses the cultural differences of minority women and informs majority men and women about this diversity. This pluralistic concept is the hope that ethnic women have in getting others to understand, promote, and respect differences in cultural patterns and learning styles that are so widespread in America--and, not incidentally, in advancing themselves in the dominant-culture.

I. Education--National Offices

U. S. Office of Education by Sex and Grade, (1974):

Table 13

Grade	Total	No. of Women	Percent Women
01	8	5	63%
02	63	47	75
03	148	125	84
04	184	153	83
05	219	190	87
06	227	214	94
07	263	202	77
08	66	57	86
09	150	116	77
10	5	3	60
11	164	107	65
12	181	91	50
13	373	92	25
14	420	72	17
15	248	23	9
16	27	2	7
17	10	2	20
18	4	0	0
Total	2,760	1,501	54%

National Institute of Education Staff by Grade and Sex,(1974):

Table 14

Grade	Total	No. of Women	Percent Women
01	0	0	--
02	2	2	100
03	6	4	67
04	10	10	100
05	29	25	86
06	33	33	100
07	48	39	81
08	7	7	100
09	32	22	69
10	0	0	--
11	25	16	64
12	29	17	59
13	49	18	37
14	52	10	19
15	27	2	7
16	0	0	--
17	0	0	--
18	0	0	--
Total	349	205	59%

-- The preceding two charts from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, pp. 506-507.

Table 15: National Education Association (NEA) Leadership by Positon and Sex, 1973

Position	Total	No. of Women	Percent Women
Executive Management	3	1	33.3
Top Management	11	0	0
Other Managerial Positions	70	10	14.3
Executive Committee	10	3	30
Board of Directors	100	24	24

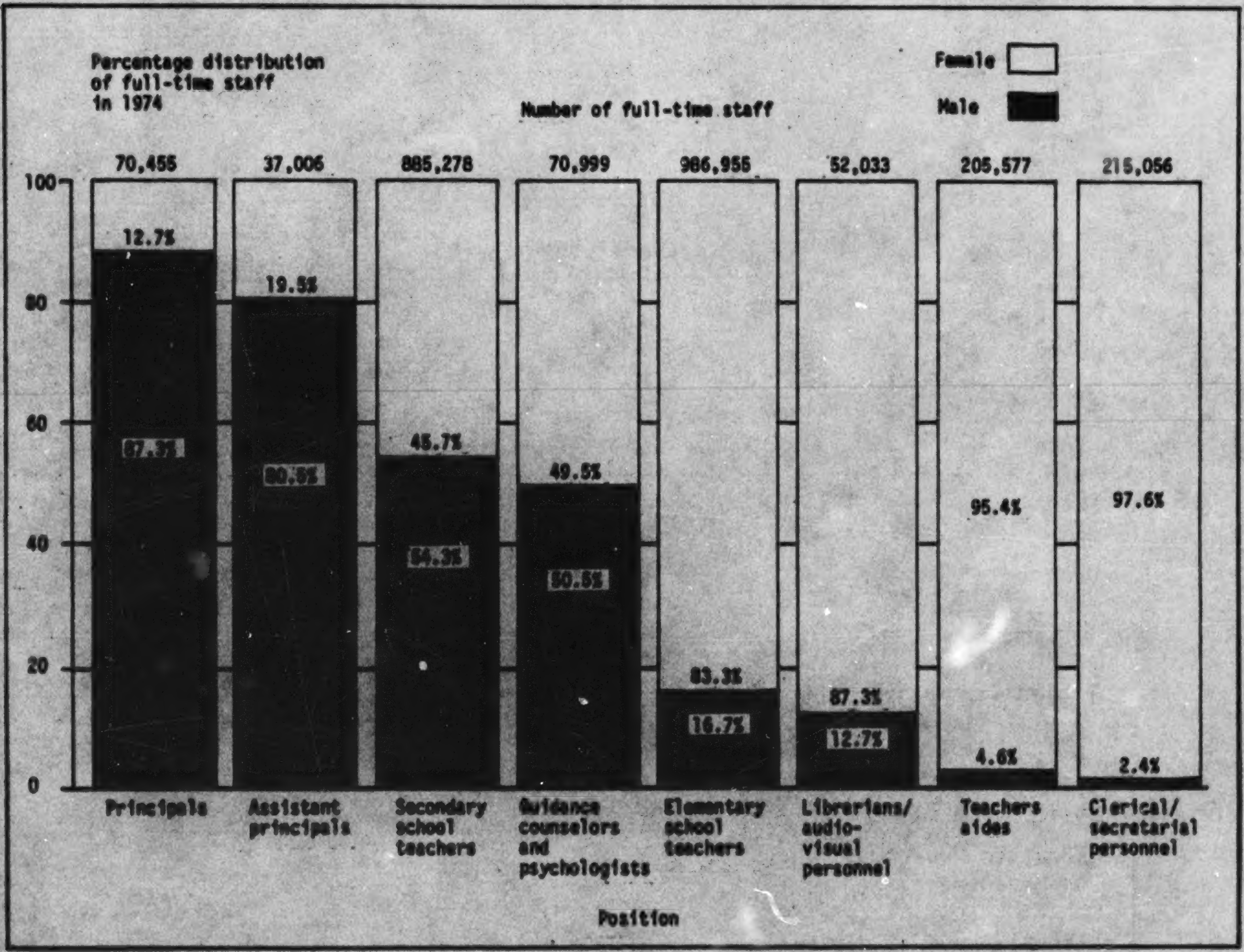
-- Taken from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, p. 283.

J. Education--Elementary and Secondary Levels

School Staff by Position and Sex (1974):

The staff composition of elementary and secondary schools reflects traditional patterns by sex. While 87.3 percent of principals were male, only 16.7 percent of elementary school teachers were male and 83.3% were female.

Table 16: Elementary and Secondary School Staff



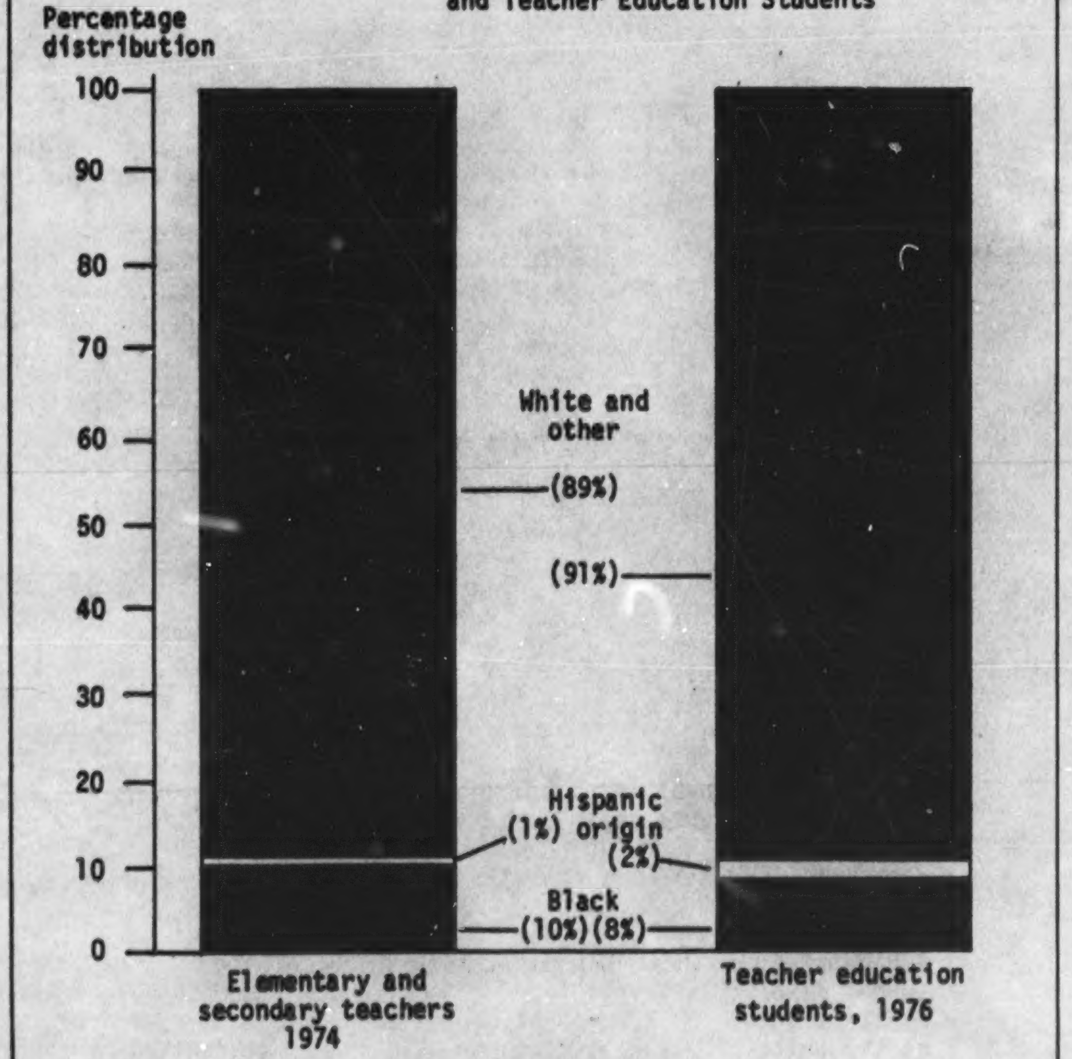
Source of Data: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

-- Taken from "How Women and Minorities Rank in U. S. Education," 1977, p. 25

Teachers by Race (1974):

Data describing the ethnic backgrounds of teachers and teacher education students were obtained from different sources and hence are not strictly comparable. However, it appears that a somewhat smaller percent of teacher education students than teachers generally are from minority groups.

Table 17: Racial Composition of Teachers and Teacher Education Students



Source of Data: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, National Center for Education Statistics

-- Taken from "How Women and Minorities Rank in U. S. Education," 1977, p. 25.

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Racial Minority Profile (High School Students):

Nationally
1974

Who Graduates High School?
65% of Blacks are high school graduates;
90% of whites are graduates;
27% of Chicanos graduate;
26% of Puerto Ricans graduate from high school

Nationally
1972

Who Goes to Segregated Schools?
45% of Black students are still in schools over 80% Black.
11% of Black students are still in 100% segregated schools.

Nationally
1970

Who Drops Out of High School?
22% of Blacks are dropouts at 16 years of age;
12% of whites are dropouts at the same age.

Item: In the Boston public schools, 90% of Puerto Rican junior high school students drop out. In New York City, Puerto Ricans have the highest dropout rate of all groups. Chicanos drop out at a rate 3 times that of Anglos. Half of all Indian youths never get beyond 8th grade.

Source: National Education Association, 1974

Suspensions

City	% Minority Students	% Minority Suspensions
New York	64.4%	85.9%
Houston	56.4	71
Cleveland	59.9	70.8
Memphis	58	70.2
Dallas	49.4	68.5

At secondary school level, nation-wide, white suspensions are 4.1%, Black 12.8%, Puerto Rican 9.4% and Chicano 7.1%.

Source: *Children Out of School in America*, 1974

A HEW survey of 2,908 school systems which enrolled 95% of all public school minority students found: 6% of Black students were suspended at least once, compared to 5% of the total minorities, and only 3% of the whites. Black students are 27% of all students in the poll, but 42% of all suspensions and 37% of all expulsions.

Source: *J.E.T.*, 3/27/75

-- Taken from "Education: White Control" (n.d.).

School Boards and Staff by Race and City:

In 1973 non-whites were about 1.5% of all elected school board members. Non-white students were almost 22% of all students.

Source: *National Education Association*, 1974

In 1974 in the 11 southern states 325 out of 17,500 school board members were Black.

Source: *Voter Education Project*, 1974

Based on 1970 Census

City	% Minority Students	% Minority Teachers	Race of Superintendent	School Board White	School Board Other
Atlanta	82.5%	59.6%	Black	4	5
Berkeley	74	31.7	Black	3	3
Boston	38	6	white	5	0
Chicago	69.3	36.4	white	7	4
Dayton	45	31.7	white	6	1
Detroit	71.5	42.4	white	4	9
El Paso	64	23.7	white	5	2
Harrisburg	65.4	22	Black	9	0
Los Angeles	50.9	22.3	white	6	1
Minneapolis	12.7	5.8	white	7	1
Newark	88	36.7	Black	4	5
New Orleans	77.2	56.8	white	4	1
New York	63	8.5	white	180	99
Oakland	71.9	29.1	white	5	2
Philadelphia	65.9	32.2	white	6	3
Phoenix	25.7	14.7	white	5	0
San Antonio	80	27.5	white	3	4
Trenton	79	29.3	white	6	3
Wilmington	88	57.9	Black	3	4

Source: *Minorities in Policy-Making Positions in Public Education*, Nov/74

In Denver, Chicanos are 25% of students, but 2.3% of teachers. 600 of Colorado's 27,000 public school teachers are Chicanos.

Source: *N. Y. TIMES*, 7/2/75

In 1972-73, out of 199 Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, only 13 were operated by the Indian communites they serve.

Source: *U.S. Department of Interior*, 1975

In 5 southwestern states, Mexican Americans constitute:

17% of all pupils
3% of all principals
4% of all teachers

28.2% of all custodians
5.6% of all students entering college

Source: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, April/1971

Ratio of PRINCIPALS TO STUDENTS--New York City for 1972-73

Black principals to Black students	1: 2,992
Spanish-surnamed principals to Spanish-surnamed students	1:15,169
White principals to white students	1: 509

Ratio of TEACHERS TO STUDENTS--New York City for 1972-73

Black teachers to Black students	1: 84
Spanish-surnamed teachers to Spanish-surnamed students	1:262
White teachers to white students	1: 8

Source: Metropolitan Applied Research Council, Jan/1974

-- Taken from "Education: White Control" (n.d.).

School Staff by Sex (1972):

Table 18: Estimated Number and Percent Distribution of Full-time Public-school Professional Employees, 1972-73, by Sex

Position	Number of persons			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Instructional Staff						
Teachers	2,110,368	709,084	1,401,284	100.0	33.6	66.4
Principals						
Elementary (including teaching principals)	48,196	38,750	9,446	100.0	80.4	19.6
Junior high	9,374	9,102	272	100.0	97.1	2.9
Senior high	15,827	15,605	222	100.0	98.6	1.4
Total principals	73,397	65,457	9,940	100.0	86.5	13.5
Assistant principals						
Elementary	6,483	4,486	1,997	100.0	69.2	30.8
Junior high	7,817	7,223	594	100.0	92.4	7.6
Senior high	13,289	12,439	850	100.0	93.6	6.4
Total assistant principals	27,589	24,148	3,441	100.0	87.5	12.5
Other instructional staff						
School librarians	40,540	3,324	37,216	100.0	8.2	91.8
Counselors	49,770	26,378	23,392	100.0	53.0	47.0
School nurses	17,074	239	16,835	100.0	1.4	98.6
Other*	33,691	16,812	16,879	100.0	49.9	50.1
Total other instructional staff	141,075	46,753	94,322	100.0	33.1	66.9
Total instructional staff	2,352,429	843,442	1,508,987	100.0	35.9	64.1
Central-office Administrators						
Superintendents	13,037	12,972	65	100.0	99.9	0.1
Deputy and associate superintendents	853	800	53	100.0	93.8	6.2
Assistant superintendents	5,337	5,054	283	100.0	94.7	5.3
Other central-office administrators**	48,488	31,614	16,874	100.0	65.0	35.0
Total central-office administrators	67,715	50,440	17,275	100.0	74.4	25.6
Total Full-time Professional Employees	2,420,144	893,882	1,526,262	100.0	37.2	62.8

*Includes heads of departments, social workers, visiting teachers, psychologists, and psychometrists.

**Includes central-office administrator for General Administration, Finance and School Plant. Pupil Personnel Services, Instruction--administration, and Special Subject areas.

-- Taken from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, p. 510

Textbooks--Comparison of Occupations Represented to Women in Labor Force:

Comparison of Occupations of Text-women to Women in Labor Force

Overrepresentation Greatly More	More	Same	Fewer	Underrepresentation Greatly Fewer
Housewife	Nurse	Librarian	Secretary	Clerical Worker
Elementary Schoolteacher	Small-store Owner	Housekeeper	Service Worker	Waitress
Trapeze Artist	Recreation Director			
Elephant Trainer	Baker			
	Landlady			

-- Taken from Pottker and Fishel, Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, 1977, p. 117.

K. Education--Postsecondary/Higher Education

Distribution of Enrollment in Vocational Education by Sex:

Table 19: Percentage Distribution of Enrollment in Vocational Education Areas by Sex, 1977 - Projected*

Program	1972 % Male	1977 % Male	1972 % Female	1977 % Female
Agriculture	94.6	92.0	5.4	8.0
Distribution	54.7	54.0	45.3	46.0
Health	15.3	17.0	84.7	83.0
Home Economics	8.4	10.0	91.6	90.0
Office	23.6	25.0	76.4	75.0
Technical	90.2	91.0	9.8	9.0
Trade and Industrial	88.3	87.0	11.7	13.0

*Includes unduplicated enrollments and enrollments below grade 9.

Source: Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Trends in Vocational Education Fiscal Year 1972, Washington: Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, June, 1973, p. 7.

-- Taken from How to Erase Sex Discrimination in Vocational Education, 1977, p. 57.

Table 20: Professors with Tenure

1977-78 report compares percentages for men, women

	All Institutions			Public Institutions			Private Institutions		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Alabama	59.0%	46.7%	55.0%	59.6%	46.7%	55.5%	50.3%	46.7%	49.1%
Arizona	51.4	34.5	47.6	51.6	33.9	47.6	45.1	53.8	47.2
Arkansas	55.5	40.4	51.0	57.9	40.7	52.7	41.8	37.8	40.8
California	51.8	48.0	50.9	51.0	50.1	50.7	56.4	32.8	51.7
Colorado	60.0	35.5	55.0	59.7	34.2	54.7	62.4	41.4	57.1
Connecticut	71.7	53.7	67.4	79.7	64.2	75.8	61.3	36.5	56.0
Delaware	62.3	22.7	52.0	62.4	25.0	53.6	61.5	12.5	36.7
District of Columbia ...	49.0	32.2	43.6	21.3	14.5	18.8	57.8	40.4	52.7
Florida	66.7	52.8	62.9	71.0	57.5	67.2	49.5	29.0	44.8
Georgia	51.2	27.9	44.2	54.0	27.6	46.3	42.9	28.7	38.1
Hawaii	72.4	57.6	68.7	72.6	58.0	69.0	62.5	46.2	56.8
Idaho	44.5	31.2	41.9	55.3	34.7	51.1	1.9	13.6	3.8
Illinois	69.4	53.3	65.5	73.1	59.1	69.5	61.5	38.2	56.4
Indiana	62.8	39.7	57.3	63.2	41.9	57.9	62.0	33.8	56.1
Iowa	42.3	30.0	39.3	31.1	25.0	29.6	[illegible].4	37.2	53.9
Kansas	56.9	31.8	51.3	59.7	34.3	54.2	39.9	19.6	34.7
Kentucky	59.8	43.0	55.1	60.8	42.3	55.8	55.1	45.5	51.9
Louisiana	57.4	44.9	53.6	60.8	47.0	56.4	43.3	32.9	40.7
Maine	58.8	28.7	53.1	66.3	34.2	59.9	45.7	17.4	40.8
Maryland	65.0	50.3	60.4	67.3	53.4	62.7	55.8	31.8	49.8
Massachusetts	62.0	41.7	56.9	76.4	56.8	70.1	55.1	29.0	49.5
Michigan	69.2	52.9	65.1	72.6	59.1	69.3	53.3	27.3	46.2
Minnesota	62.0	38.0	56.5	63.2	40.6	58.2	58.9	32.3	52.3
Mississippi	38.2	19.5	31.4	37.2	18.4	30.2	44.8	27.6	39.0
Missouri	58.9	35.3	52.8	58.3	33.7	51.9	60.6	39.2	55.0
Montana	64.6	40.8	60.2	64.7	43.5	61.0	63.4	26.7	53.6
Nebraska	61.4	31.6	54.4	60.9	32.7	54.6	63.2	28.7	54.0
Nevada	59.4	36.1	54.3	59.4	36.1	54.3	--	--	--
New Hampshire	64.4	31.2	56.9	74.7	41.5	68.7	52.1	24.0	44.4
New Jersey	69.5	51.0	64.2	70.2	54.2	65.2	67.6	36.2	61.0

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(cont.)

Professors with Tenure (continued)

	All Institutions			Public Institutions			Private Institutions		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
New Mexico	64.1%	38.6%	58.5%	64.8%	38.4%	59.5%	52.6%	39.7%	47.1%
New York	67.6	43.2	61.9	75.1	51.4	70.0	62.9	38.9	57.0
North Carolina	53.7	32.1	47.0	54.9	31.3	47.8	50.0	34.2	44.8
North Dakota	57.2	32.8	51.1	60.7	39.0	55.7	--	--	--
Ohio	59.2	40.3	54.9	55.9	39.6	52.1	66.3	42.0	61.0
Oklahoma	53.1	35.6	48.3	55.0	38.4	50.3	47.0	25.7	41.4
Oregon	68.7	51.1	64.7	71.0	54.0	67.1	55.7	31.2	50.8
Pennsylvania	69.5	50.6	65.3	73.9	62.5	71.2	65.3	37.0	59.4
Rhode Island	62.5	38.4	57.1	71.9	51.0	65.9	54.8	16.5	48.7
South Carolina	44.2	22.0	37.8	42.6	18.8	35.9	49.8	32.6	44.7
South Dakota	64.5	39.7	58.8	66.8	47.7	63.0	57.4	26.8	47.7
Tennessee	62.7	41.2	57.2	62.7	43.2	57.7	62.6	35.7	56.0
Texas	55.5	33.7	49.4	55.7	33.5	49.4	54.4	34.6	49.0
Utah	69.2	35.6	63.2	69.6	35.8	63.7	54.3	31.8	45.6
Vermont	54.3	26.5	47.4	63.1	35.7	56.1	42.1	12.0	35.2
Virginia	53.6	37.2	49.5	52.9	36.0	48.9	55.9	39.8	51.2
Washington	76.1	57.2	71.7	79.0	61.3	74.9	60.0	37.2	54.0
West Virginia	60.0	42.5	54.7	61.8	44.0	56.6	51.4	36.7	46.5
Wisconsin	65.2	40.2	59.4	65.8	42.4	60.5	61.6	27.8	53.5
Wyoming	64.1	45.8	60.5	64.1	45.8	60.5	--	--	--
U.S. service schools ...	72.0	--	70.3	72.0	--	70.3	--	--	--
Outlying areas	56.8	56.9	56.9	63.5	62.7	63.1	21.3	26.0	23.5
Total	60.6%	42.5%	56.0%	61.5%	45.2%	57.3%	58.2%	34.6%	52.4%

NOTE: Data for Alaska not reported.

SOURCE: National Center for Education Statistics

-- Taken from "Fact-File: Professors with Tenure," Chronicle of Higher Education, May 8, 1978.

Position of Racial Minorities:

College Faculty:

In 1969, whites made up 96.3% of all 4-year and 2-year college faculties. Blacks were 2.2%, and other minorities, 1.6%.

Source: Statistical Abstract of the U.S., 1972

In New York state, of 9,400 faculty members at the State University of New York, only 32 were Puerto Ricans, and of 3,056 in the school's administration, only a handful were Puerto Ricans.

Source: N. Y. Times, February 15, 1972

In the Southwest, there are 20 white students to every white faculty member. For Mexican Americans, the student-to-faculty ratio is 100 to one. There would have to be 6,000 more Chicano/Chicana faculty members hired to attain the same ratio enjoyed by whites.

Source: N. Y. Times, September 24, 1972

In New York City, at Bronx Community College, 8-1/2 percent of the instructional personnel are minorities, while 61% of the custodians are minorities. At Brooklyn College, 7% of the instructional staff are minorities, while 63% of the custodians are minorities.

Source: N. Y. Amsterdam News, March 25, 1972

-- Above four items taken from "Education: White Control" (n.d.).

Blacks:

Both Black women and Black men still have considerably lower median levels of education than white females or white males:

Table 21: Increase in Median Level of Education for persons over 14 years old

	white male	black male	white female	black female
1972	12.4 yrs.	10.9	12.3	11.1
1966	12.0	9.4	12.2	10.1
Increase	.4	1.5	.1	1.0

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #1, 1974, p. 2.

More Black men than Black women are now in college:

1973 Ages 18-24:

Black M.	Black W.	White M.	White W.
19%	14%	29%	21%

Total Blacks in college: 16% of all Blacks 18-24 years

Total whites in college: 25% of all whites 18-24 years

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #1, 1974, p. 2.

Educational Aspirations:

About the same percentage of Black females and Black males aspire to advanced degrees, but Black females are over twice as likely to aspire to the Ph.D. than white females. Just as white women have lower aspirations than white men, Black women are more likely to aspire to lower degrees than Black men.

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #1, 1974, p. 3.

Spanish-Speaking:

The Spanish speaking population in this country is younger than the population as a whole. The median age of Spanish speaking persons in the United States is 20.1 years, compared to 28.1 years for all persons.

Very few Spanish speaking women are highly educated. As of March 1974, the median number of years of education for all Spanish speaking women (14 years old or over) was only 9.7. While this is not much less than the median level of education for men of Spanish origin (10.0 years), it is far below the median level of white men and women (12.3 years each).

A number of women of Spanish origin have some experience in higher education, even though they do not complete four years of college. Of Spanish speaking women (14 years old and over) 5.9 have had from one to three years of college. In all, only 2.7 percent of Spanish speaking women (14 years old and over) had completed four years of college in 1973. In contrast, 3.3 percent of Black females, 6.1 percent of white females, and 7.7 percent of white males had completed four years of college.

-- Taken from Minority Women and Higher Education #2, 1975, pp. 1-2.

Native American and Asian-American:

The Project on the Status and Education of Women, which collected the data on Blacks and on Spanish speaking people (above), is also planning to do information sheets on Native Americans and Asian-Americans.

Minority Students:

Minority Women Vary in Educational Attainment

Minority women are not a monolithic group in academe or elsewhere, and a report issued in January 1977 by the American Council on Education (ACE) illustrates some of the differences among minority women in higher education. ACE's Higher Education Panel Report No. 24, *Bachelor's Degrees Awarded to Minority Students, 1973-74*, reports that:

- among all minority bachelor degree recipients, 53% were women and 47% were men;
- the lowest proportion of women recipients was among American Indians, where they were 37%, and the highest proportion was among Black Americans, where they were 57%;
- the proportion of women among Asian American and Spanish American recipients paralleled the national figure for all students, 45%.

The report also notes that minority women, like white women, were less likely to receive degrees from universities, especially private universities.

Further evidence of the differences (and similarities) among minority women is provided by enrollment data from the Office for Civil Rights (OCR). OCR reports that in 1974, of the total number of minority students in undergraduate schools, 586,160 were female and 596,365 were male. [NOTE: The discrepancy between this enrollment figure and the degree recipient figure above is apparently due to the lower dropout rate of females.] In graduate schools, minority females and males were almost evenly divided at just over 49,000 each. At the graduate level, black females outnumbered black males by 38,926 to 28,107. However, males of other minority groups (American Indian, Asian American and Spanish Americans) outnumbered females of the same minority by almost two to one. Finally, in the professional schools, *all* male minorities outnumbered female minorities *more than three to one*.

Single copies of the ACE report can be obtained from Higher Education Panel, American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036. For further information on the enrollment of minorities, contact Mary Lou Watkins, Office of Public Information, Office for Civil Rights, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, DC 20201.

-- Taken from "Minority Women," On Campus with Women, October 1977, p. 7.

Percentage of Women Faculty By Rank (1974, 1975):

The percentage of women on faculties, at all levels, at all kinds of institutions, has crept upward at a painfully slow rate over the last couple of years. In 1974 women were 23.8% of full-time faculty, according to government figures; AAUP figures were slightly lower. The latest HEW statistics estimate women at slightly 25% of the 1976-77 faculty.

Following are the 1974 and 1976 figures:

Percentage of Women Among Full-Time Faculty

Academic Rank	1974-75	1975-76
All ranks combined	23.8	24.3
Professor	9.8	9.6
Associate Professor	16.8	17.1
Assistant Professor	27.2	28.8
Instructor	40.4	40.6
Lecturer	39.6	41.4
Undesignated Rank	33.2	33.2

-- Taken from "Facts about Women in Higher Education," 1978, p. 28.

Salaries of Faculty by Sex (1976):

Five years ago Astin and Bayer reported that women full professors made an average of $1,700 less than their male counterparts. That gap has widened to $2,316 according to 1976-77 salary figures from HEW.

Mean Salaries of Full-Time Faculty 1976-77

Rank	Men	Women	Gap
All Ranks	$18,269	$15,039	$3,230
Professor	23,828	21,512	2,316
Associate Professor	18,003	17,211	792
Assistant Professor	14,815	14,134	681
Instructor	12,234	11,501	733
Lecturer	13,245	11,838	1,407
Undesignated Rank	17,211	15,403	1,808

In general, women are getting raises at the same rate as men (about 5% for 1976-77), but salary inequity still prevails because of the gap which existed in the first place.

-- Taken from "Facts about Women in Higher Education," 1978, p. 29.

Women in Administration by Race (1977):

Two new surveys of women in administration show that not only have women failed to achieve equality, but their status has not improved at all in the last four years. The surveys, based on data as current as 1977, show:

- That women are paid about four-fifths as much as men with the same job titles at the same type of institution;
- That of the key administrative positions at all institutions surveyed, 79% were held by white men. White women held 14%, minority men 5%, and minority women 2%;
- That the only administrative job in which both females and males, whites and minority group members, had a balanced representation was that of "affirmative action officer";
- That among affirmative action officers, men are paid more than women.

Only about 1% of all the presidents of public four-year colleges and public and private universities are women. None of the 65 presidents of private universities is a woman. Of the women who are college presidents, the vast majority head either Roman Catholic or women's colleges.

-- Taken from "Facts about Women in Higher Education," 1978, p. 29.

Percent of Doctorates Received by Women (1900-1973):

THE WOMEN PICTURE

Percentage of Doctorates Received by Women--
Selected Years--1900 to 1973

Year	%	Year	%
1900	5.8	1950	5.7
1910	9.9	1960	10.5
1920	15.1	1970	13.3
1930	15.1	1973	18.0*
1940	13.0		

Source: Data for 1900-1970 from American Council on Education (1973, p. 1771).

*This figure is also from the National Research Council/National Academy of Sciences, *Doctoral Recipients in United States Universities, 1974.*

-- Taken from Comment, April 1977.

Doctorates Awarded by Field, Sex, and Ethnic Group (1973-1976):

Table 22: Number of Doctorates Awarded in the United States, 1973-76

	White	Black	American Indian	Chicano	Puerto Rican	Asian	Other & Unknown	Total
MEN								
Mathematics	2,562	31	14	14	5	20	300	2,946
Physics and astronomy...	3,166	20	11	11	4	18	400	3,630
Chemistry...............	4,227	75	10	21	4	32	432	4,801
Earth sciences..........	1,679	4	10	4	6	11	183	1,897
Engineering.............	5,663	52	23	16	17	46	615	6,432
Biosciences.............	10,217	153	54	63	20	116	1,113	11,736
Psychology..............	5,795	146	36	39	21	28	586	6,651
Social sciences.........	7,425	187	37	53	12	37	913	8,664
Arts and humanities.....	10,141	191	62	77	23	27	1,239	11,760
Professional fields.....	3,332	78	13	14	8	10	354	3,809
Education...............	15,438	1,315	134	201	35	54	1,733	18,910
Other...................	55	1	--	1	--	1	8	66
Unknown.................	8	--	--	--	--	--	6	14
Total...................	69,708	2,253	404	514	155	400	7,882	81,316
WOMEN								
Mathematics............	299	5	--	1	--	4	19	328
Physics and astronomy..	113	3	1	--	--	2	11	130
Chemistry..............	426	6	2	--	1	8	29	472
Earth sciences.........	121	3	1	--	--	--	12	137
Engineering............	86	--	--	--	--	--	2	88
Biosciences............	2,470	71	12	7	4	29	211	2,804
Psychology.............	2,594	86	11	6	7	19	225	2,948
Social sciences........	1,978	68	11	8	9	6	154	2,234
Arts and humanities....	4,543	107	28	33	10	31	446	5,198
Professional fields....	633	53	5	6	2	5	62	766
Education..............	6,196	775	42	49	30	39	588	7,719
Other..................	20	--	--	--	--	--	--	20
Unknown................	3	--	--	--	--	--	--	3
Total..................	19,482	1,177	113	110	63	143	1,759	22,847

NOTE: Figures include native-born U.S. citizens only.

SOURCE: Survey of Earned Doctorates, National Research Council

-- Taken from "Fact-File," Chronicle of Higher Education, 1978, p. 18.

Women Students--Enrollment Increases (1977):

> The latest Census Bureau report on college enrollment reveals that a majority of young college students are female: 52% of all students under age 22. While the number of young men under 22 has remained about the same, enrollment of women under 22 rose 35% between 1970 and 1976. In 1977, women's strong upward trend in enrollment at all ages continued, accounting for a startling 93% of the year's enrollment growth at colleges and universities. The increase in enrollment among women age 22-35 between 1970 and 1976 was 103%. Among students 35 and older, women comprise 59%, up from 52% in 1975. Older women are now the fastest growing group of postsecondary students.
>
> -- Taken from "Joe College Is Now a Woman," 1978, p. 3.

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